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FOREIGN COUNTRIES

AND
BRITISH COLONIES

• GREECE •

LEWIS SERGEANT.



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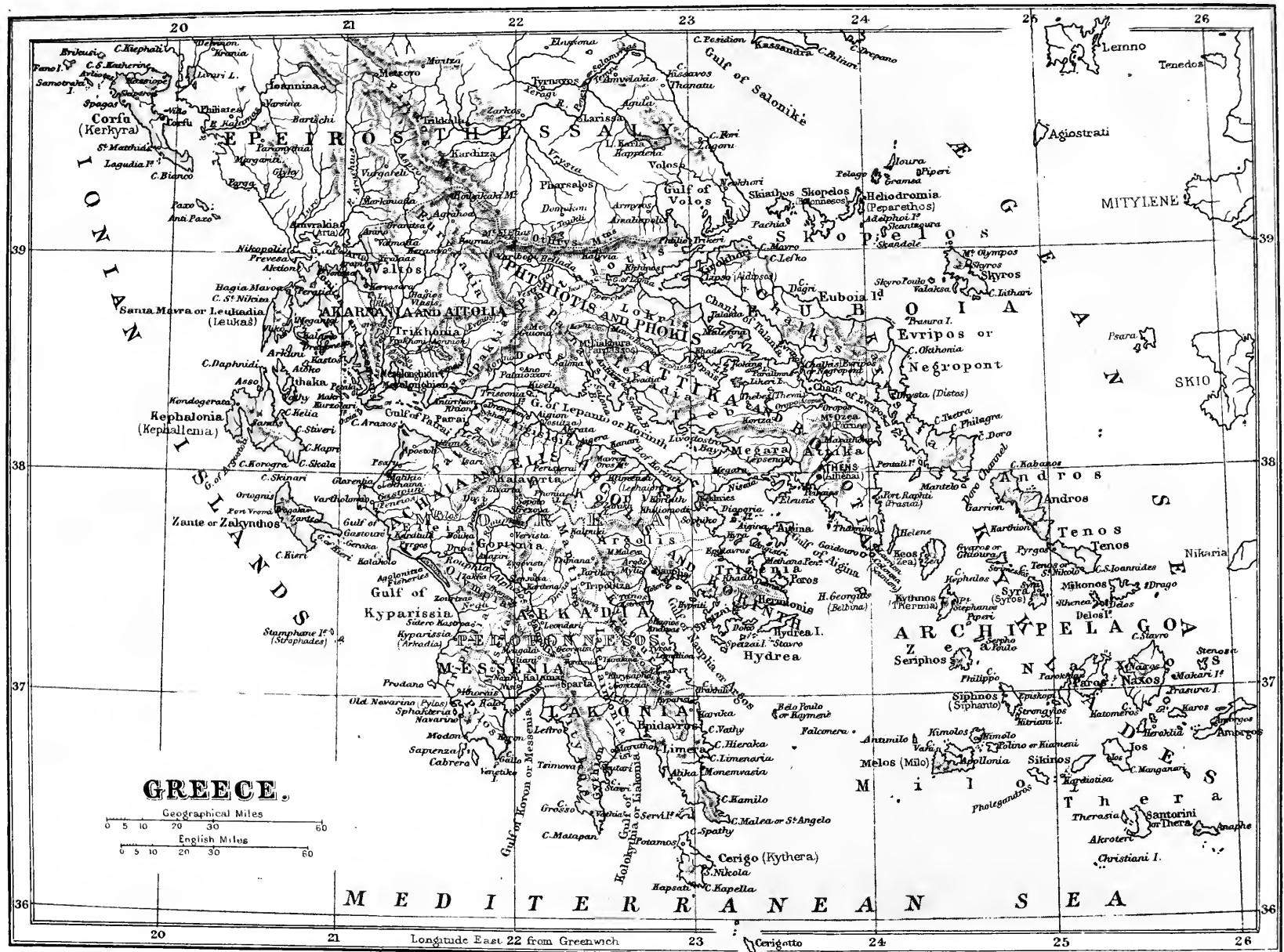
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PREFACE.

THIS little book aims at giving, in simple outline, a geographical and historical description of the kingdom of Greece, without wholly excluding the provinces and islands of Turkey wherein the Hellenic race predominates. If greater attention seems to be paid to the historical element than is contemplated in the general plan of the Series, the reader will probably have no difficulty in admitting that, in the case of Greece more than in that of any other European country, geography apart from history is unsatisfactory, not to say misleading. For years to come the map of the Balkan Peninsula must be subject to variations; and it would be idle, at such a crisis as the present, to define the frontiers of Greece without having regard to the bordering provinces, and to the historical facts which involve the variations aforesaid.

The delimitation of the Turko-Hellenic frontier

which was agreed upon in principle at the Congress of Berlin, in the summer of 1878, has not been completed at the moment when these words are written. Some account is taken in the following pages of those parts of Epeiros and Thessaly which lie to the south of the Kalamas and Pencios rivers; but it is impossible to treat them with as much detail as the actual territories of Greece, which are already subdivided into eparchies and *demosi*, and are described in elementary Greek geographies with no less precision than the English counties in our own text-books.

If the geographical details and nomenclature introduced in the third chapter appear somewhat harsh in a book laying claim to be popular, it should be remembered that a special interest attaches to the political subdivisions of Greece. Not only are many of the districts, towns, and ruins peculiarly rich in historical association, but the municipal institutions so carefully cherished by the Greek race impart a dignity of their own to the various communes and eparchies, sufficient to warrant their enumeration even in a volume as slender as this.

The proper names are spelt, in the text and in the map, as nearly in accordance with Greek spelling and pronunciation as appears to be

practicable. Entire uniformity is out of the question, for, though in the majority of instances it seems reasonable that we should approximate to the original, there are other cases in which this could not be done without a pedantic departure from established practice. Thus as a rule the Greek *k* has been adhered to, as in Korinth, Makedonia, the Kyklades; the diphthong *ai* (pronounced as in 'pain') is restored, as in Aitolia, Achaia, Aigina. Strict accuracy would require us to write Athenai for Athens, Korphoi for Corfu, Thevai or Thebai for Thebes; but in these and a few other instances the more familiar form has been retained. Many western corruptions of the names of Greek towns have sprung from the Frank adoption of the accusative forms of these names—as Athenas, Korphous, Thebas, Patras, &c. The first *n* in Negrepont may be accounted for in the same manner. The original *oi* (pronounced like *i* in the Latin *vinum*, *olivov*) is retained, as in Euboia (Evvoia). The vowel *u* is rendered, as pronounced, *y*; the diphthong *ou* is preserved, as in Arethousa; *au* and *eu* are rendered phonetically by *av* and *ev*, or by *af* and *ef*, in harmony with the succeeding letter. The original diphthong *ei* is retained, as in Peiraios, Epeiros; whilst the termination *os* is restored

in place of the Latin *us*, as in Pindos, Epidavros.

Amongst the works which have been found most serviceable in the preparation of the following pages are these :—

“*Politike Geographia*,” by M. G. Demitsa; Part I. Athens, 1878.

“*La Grèce à l’Exposition Universelle de Paris en 1878*,” by A. Mansolas. Athens, 1878.

“*La Faune de Grèce*,” by Th. de Heldreich. Athens, 1878.

“*Catalogue des Eaux Minérales de la Grèce*.” Paris, 1878.

“*Greek Antiquities*,” by Prof. J. P. Mahaffy. London, Macmillans, 1878.

“*Ellenike Nomothesia*,” by MM. Deligianni and Zenopoulos. Athens, 1863-7.

Use has also been made of Finlay’s History, of the copious work of Moraïtinis, of recent Consular Reports, of sundry articles in English and French periodicals dealing with the actual condition of the country, the late antiquarian researches, &c., and, incidentally, of many other authorities, whereof a list will be found appended to “New Greece,” published by Messrs. Cassell and Co. in 1878.

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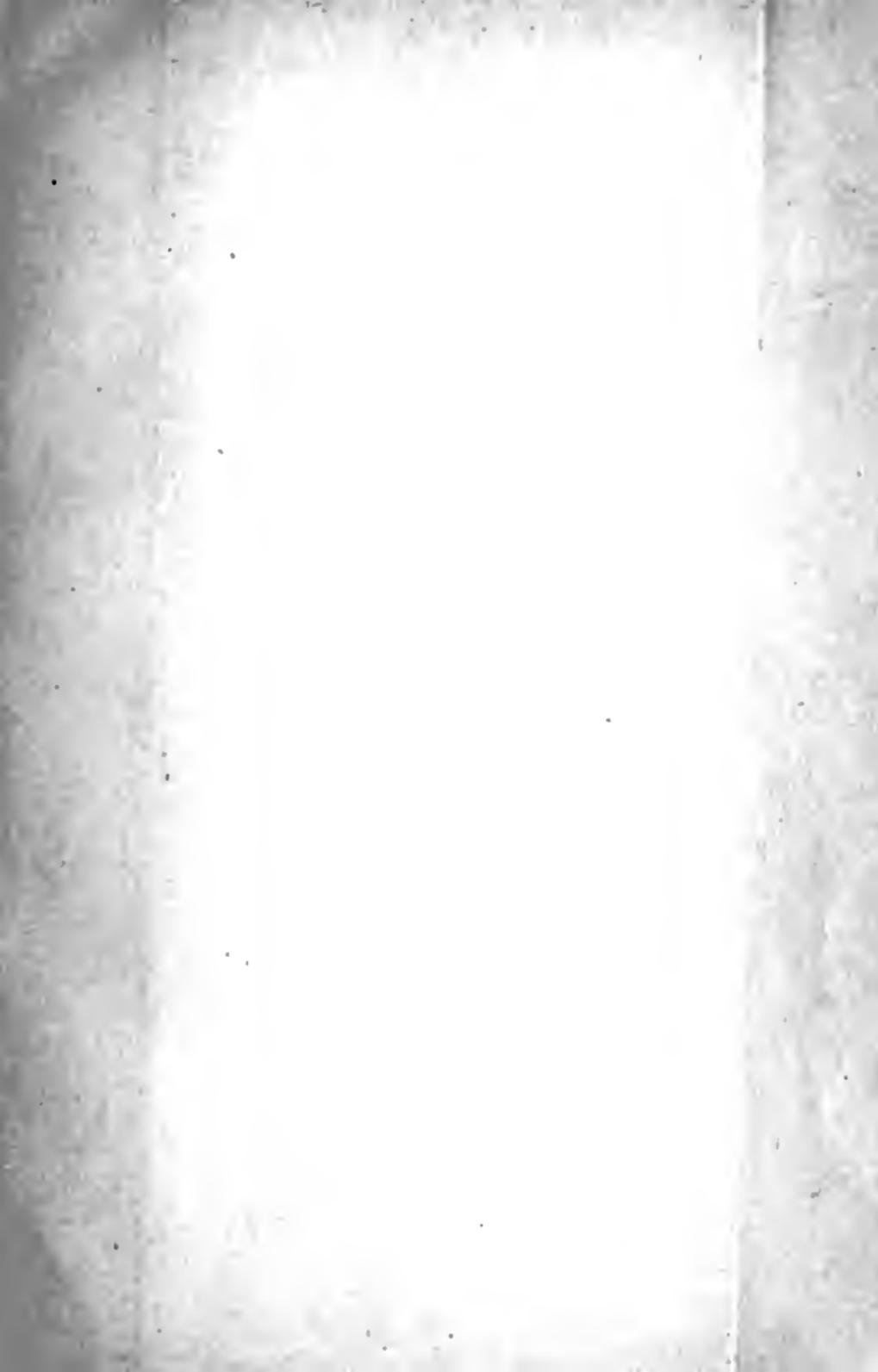
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PHYSICAL MAP
of
GREECE

Geographical Miles

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20 30

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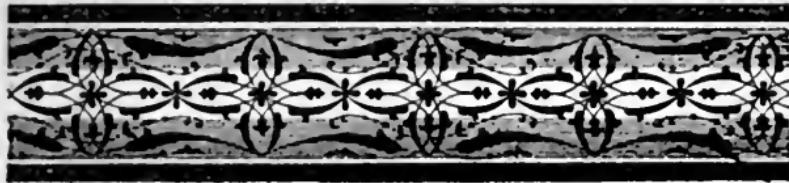
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G R E E C E.



CHAPTER I.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

THE kingdom of Greece consists of a double peninsula on the south-west of the Turkish dominions in Europe (from which it was finally severed in 1832), together with the numerous adjacent islands. The Ionian Islands were annexed to the kingdom in 1864, when the total area was increased to about 19,500 square miles. Though this area is less than one-fifth of the British Islands, the Greek coasts exceed in length those of any other European country.

On the west is the Ionian Sea, with its long inlet, the Gulf of Korinth; on the south is the Kretan Sea, with the two wide gulfs of Messenia and Lakonia; on the east is the *Aegean* Sea, with

the gulfs of Argolis, Aigina, and Volos, and the islands of Euboia (Evvoia), the Kyklades, and the Sporades. The largest of the islands of Greece is Euboia, which has a length of 100 miles. The Kyklades are scattered over the western Archipelago of the *Ægean*, and are partly a continuation of the mountain chains of the mainland, and partly the product of volcanic action. The eastern Archipelago washes the coast of Asia Minor; and the principal islands, such as Lesbos, Chios (Scio), Samos, and Rhodes, (with Cyprus and the shores of the Levant,) were colonized by Ionian and other settlers from continental Greece, whose descendants people them to the present day. The easternmost island belonging to the kingdom as now constituted is Amorgos, in longitude 26° east from Greenwich.

The northern frontier of Greece, when the Romans first gave that name to the entire country of the Hellenes, was the line which separated Epeiros and Thessaly from the Illyrians, and from Makedonia. Quitting the sea-coast on the Gulf of Salonikè, this line follows the crests of Mount Olympos and the Kambunian range, above the fortieth parallel, as far as the junction of this latter range with that of Pindos; then, after running northwards along the crest of Mount Pindos,

turns due west to the Akrokeranian promontory. Considered hydrographically, instead of orographically, this line divides the watersheds of the Salamvrias and the Voyussa (ancient Aoös) on the south from those of the Haliakmon and the Ergent on the north—save that the lower valley of the Voyussa is excluded from Greece by the line as above traced.

The northern boundary of the present kingdom of Greece, as it was settled by the Powers in 1832, extends from the middle of the Gulf of Volos (Pelasic or Pagasaian Gulf), along the crest of Mount Othrys, to Mount Velouchi (the ancient Tymphrestos), and so across the valley of the Aspropotamos (Acheloös) to the Gulf of Arta (Amvrakian Gulf), near Koprina. This boundary cuts off, though not with historical accuracy, the whole of Thessaly and Epeiros.

The plenipotentiaries at the Congress of Berlin indicated a new line, nearly midway between these two, and following the valleys of the Peneios and the Kalamas (ancient Thyamis).

Of the three lines here traced, the outer one is historical, ethnographical, and strongly marked by nature. The inner one had nothing historical to recommend it at the time of its adoption, nothing ethnographical, and only the Othrys range by way

of natural boundary. The middle line, however it may ultimately be drawn, can be neither historical, nor ethnographical, nor well defined.

The narrow portion of continental Hellas with which the Greeks have had to be satisfied during the first half-century of their existence as a kingdom is about 48 miles broad (from Mount Othrys to the Korinthian Gulf), and 200 miles long (from the Ionian Sea to Cape Sounion). It is commonly called Sterea (Continental) Hellas. Its area is about 7700 square miles, and the number of its inhabitants exceeds 450,000.

The secondary peninsula of Greece, called the Peloponnesos ("Island of Pelops"), and, since the twelfth century, the Morea, from the extensive cultivation of mulberry-trees after the introduction of silk-culture, is separated from Sterea Hellas by the Gulf of Patrai, or Patras, the Korinthian Gulf, and the Saronic Gulf. The connecting isthmus of Korinth varies in breadth from about three and a half miles upwards ; and, from its estimated length or breadth, it has acquired the name of Hexamillion.

The form of the Peloponnesos is that of a rhomboid, with four marked projections on the south and east, and three minor ones on the north-west. On the east is the promontory of Argolis, having

Argos and Korinth near the extremities of its base, and the Saronic and Argolic gulfs on either side. The southern coast is broken into three promontories, those of Lakonia, Maina or Manè, and Messenè. The Lakonian promontory terminates in Cape Malea ; the Maina, formed by the extension of the Taÿgetos (Pentedaktylon) range, terminates in Cape Matapan (Tainaron) ; and the promontory of Messenè, on the south-west, terminates in Cape Gallo (Akritas). On the north-west we have the promontory of Elis, terminating in Cape Chelonatas ; the promontory of Araxos, dividing the Bay of Kyllene from the Gulf of Patrai ; and the promontory of Drepanon, having Patrai and Aigion at the extremities of its base. The area of the Peloponnesos is about 8400 square miles, and its inhabitants number about 700,000.

The latitude of Cape Matapan is $36^{\circ} 23'$; of Cape Drepanon, $38^{\circ} 20'$; of Mount Othrys, 39° ; of Janina (Ioannina), $39^{\circ} 45'$; of the mean northern boundary of ancient Greece, about $40^{\circ} 20'$. The latitude of Athens is $37^{\circ} 59'$, and its longitude $23^{\circ} 44'$.

The islands may be grouped under four heads : —The Sporades, in the northern Archipelago ; the Kyklades, in the southern Archipelago ; the Ionian Isles on the west ; and the many larger and smaller

islands adjacent to various parts of the coast. The first group, which continues the mountain range of Magnesia, outside the gulf of Volos, includes Skiathos, Skopelos, Pelagonesos, Gioura, Psathoura, Piperi. At right angles to this line are Peristeri, the Adelphoi, Skanzoura, and Skyros. Only the larger ones are inhabited.

The Kyklades prolong the mountain ranges of Euboia and of the Attic promontory respectively. In the first line are Andros, Tenos, Mykonos, Rheneia, Delos, Naxos, Amorgos. In the second line are Helenè, Keos (Zea), Kythnos, Serifos, Siphnos, Kimolos, Melos. In a parallel line between these two, but nearest to the Euboian line, are Gyaros, Syra, Paros, Antiparos, Ios, Sikinos, Thera (Santorini), Anaphè, &c.

The Ionian Isles run in a line parallel with the principal mountain ranges of Epeiros, and with the shores of Akarnania and Elis. They include Kerkyra (Korphoi, Corfu), Paxos, Leukas (Lefkas, Hagia Mavra, or Santa Maura), Kephallenia (Cephalonia), Ithaka, and Zakynthos (Zante). To the Heptanesos (Seven Isles), as the Greeks call these islands, belongs Kythera, or Cerigo, off the eastern promontory of Lakonia.

The coast islands are very numerous, especially on the shores of Akarnania, Messenè, Argolis, and

Attika. The most important are Euboia, Spetzai, Hydra, Poros, Salamis, and Aigina. Euboia runs parallel with the eastern promontory of Continental Hellas, facing the coasts of Lokris, Boiotia, and Attika. It has a length of 100 miles, and an average breadth of about fifteen miles, the shortest distance from the mainland being about 100 feet, between the town of Chalkis and the opposite coast of Boiotia. The arm of the sea is here called the Euripos (*Evripos*), from the frequent and forcible currents observed at this point. A modern form of the word, Egripo, gave rise to the Frank name of the island and town, which were long known as Negroponte. The aggregate area of the islands of Greece is about 3300 square miles, and their population exceeds 460,000.

Population.

A census taken in 1879 returns the population of the ancient provinces of Greece at 1,422,898, and of the Ionian Isles at 231,174, a total of 1,654,072. The figures in 1870 were respectively 1,218,147 and 218,879, and, for the total, 1,437,026. There has thus been an increase in the nine years of 221,861, or at the rate of about 1·7 per cent. per annum. The average density of the population is

about 85 to the square mile; an increase of 5 since the year 1870. Making every allowance for the uninhabitable character of a large portion of the country, these figures show that Greece is thinly populated. The rate of increase has been above the average, but the poverty of the State has prevented it from offering inducements which might have attracted a larger number of immigrants from abroad. The Greeks themselves add other explanations of the fact. "The existence of nations," says M. Mansolas, "resembles that of individuals; and as these cannot perform their mission in the world if their physical conformation is imperfect, and out of harmony with their intellectual and moral forces, so nations cannot have a complete existence, and a life of national progress, if their body is not in harmony with their spirit and destiny." Some writers have opposed the claims of Greece for extended territory by saying that the people are over-educated and too ambitious, and that they ought to confine themselves to developing the land which they already possess. The Greeks reply that their aspirations are an historical and moral necessity, that their intellectual development is an accomplished and irreversible fact, that their right to a wider dominion springs out of their capacity for it, and that three-quarters of their race are

still in the condition from which they themselves have been liberated.

The island of Corfu is the most densely populated district of Greece, having more than 350 inhabitants to the square mile. Zante has about 300, the Kyklades 135, Attika with Boiotia about 90, and Aitolia with Akarnania about 50. The population of the six largest towns (*demosi*) may be computed as follows:—Athens, about 70,000; Patrai, 34,000; Corfu, 25,000; Hermoupolis, 21,500; the Peiraios, 21,000; Zante, 18,600.

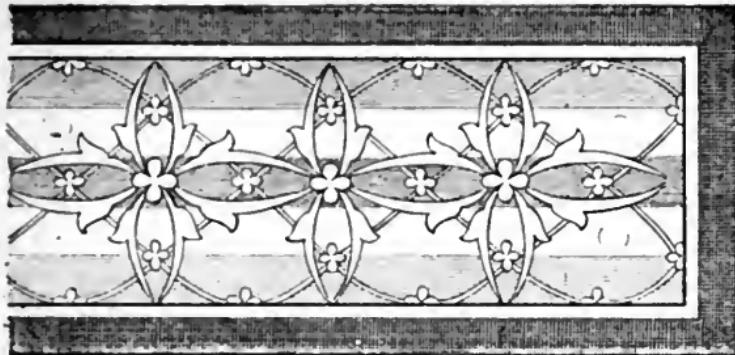
In 1870 the occupations of more than one-third of the population (556,507) were ascertained—wives, women not earning a separate livelihood, children not at school, and nondescripts of the male sex, accounting for the remaining 901,387. The result showed that there were 218,027 cultivators of the soil; 44,532 shepherds, or keepers of flocks and herds; 48,129 manufacturers and tradesmen; 22,665 workpeople of the male sex, and 5735 of the female; 31,234 owners of land (*propriétaires*); 18,952 merchants; 25,178 sailors; 28,290 domestics of both sexes; 6649 ecclesiastics; 5343 public functionaries; 4109 municipal; 13,735 in the army and navy; 73,580 scholars of both sexes, and 2253 teachers of both sexes; 1141 lawyers; 958 artists of all kinds; 797 doctors; and 4378 classed under

other heads. The total number of foreigners residing in Greece at the same date was 19,958, including 15,051 Turks, 2000 English, 1539 Italians, 1105 Germans, Frenchmen, Russians, and Americans, and 169 of other nationalities.

Of the actual subjects of King George, the Christians of the orthodox Greek rite numbered 1,441,810 in 1870; the Christians of other communions, 12,585; and the Jews and other non-Christians, 3499. The Jews are most numerous at Corfu, and they labour under no disadvantage whatever in regard to their religious profession.

The same census ascertained as many as 67,941 persons whose ordinary language was not Greek. Of these, 37,598 spoke Albanian, and 1217 employed the Wallack *patois* known as Caragouni. The majority of these understand more or less of the Greek tongue, which tends rapidly to displace the ruder forms of speech. And the same tendency is observed over the greater portion of Epeiros, Thessaly and Makedonia, where the direct influence of the Greek government and national spirit has not yet been felt.





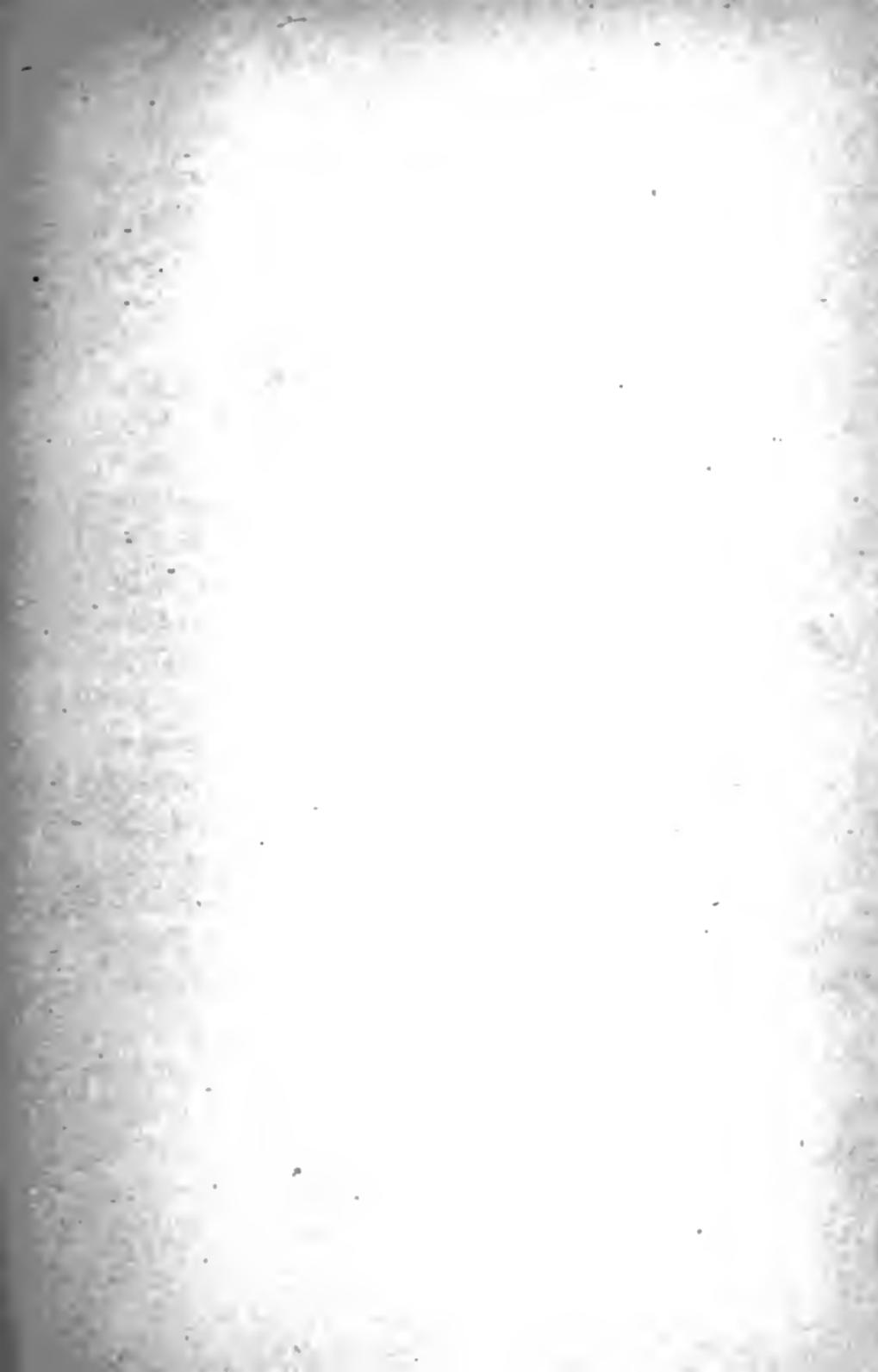
CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE land of Greece, having regard to its size, has a greater diversity of surface, a longer coast, more harbours and inlets of the sea, more mountains and valleys, and more islands, than any other country which could be named. It is also one of the most interesting portions of Europe from a geological point of view; for, though its mineral treasures have not yet been thoroughly explored, the composition of its surface presents phenomena of comparatively rare occurrence, and is constantly being modified, either by the process of detrition and deposit, or by the accumulation and dispersion of inland waters, or by volcanic action.

A coast voyage from the Gulf of Salonikè (Thes-

salonikè) to the Akrokeraunian promontory would exhibit to the voyager a remarkable panorama of mountain and plain, gulf and cape, shore and island. Sailing southward past the mouth of the Pencios, where the slopes of Ossa sink down into the valley of Tempè, and along the hooked claw of the Magnesian range, the vessel would leave Skiathos on the left hand, and pass into the smoother waters of the Pagasaian Gulf. Here, if not before, the traveller would be forcibly reminded that he was circumnavigating a land of ruins. Methonè, Demetrias, the Pelasgic Thebes, Pteleon, a score of desecrated temples and broken pillars, alternate with the rude towns and villages of to-day, and recall the heroic age of Greece. The same contrast is renewed as Mount Pelion fades behind him, and, rounding the cape of Poseidon, he enters the Maliac Gulf, and sees, not far from modern Lamia, the ruins of Iphalara and Stylos, and the broadening Pass of Thermopylai. On his right hand recede the wooded heights of Lokris, and sacred Opus, and the marshy limits of Kopaïs, until he finds himself borne on the swift stream of the Evripos, which the ancient Greeks spanned with a bridge some score yards in length. Oropos is passed, and Eretria, long the jealous rival of Chalkis, and then the traveller, gazing behind him on “the Persian’s





COTTAGE NEAR KORON.

Page 13.

grave" at Marathon, emerges upon the isle-strewn waters of the *Ægean*.

Round the "marbled steep" of Sounion; over the busy highway of the Saronic Gulf, close by the height where rose the temple of Zeus Panhellenios; past the rapidly-reviving harbour of the Peiraios, whither a new race of Athenians stroll down to the sea ; skirting the glorious isle of Salamis, and on through the narrow Eleusinian Strait ; round by Epidavros and Troizen, and past the wealthy islands of Poros, Hydra and Spetzai, never to be forgotten by the grateful children of modern Greece ; up the bay to Nauplia (Nasplion) and Argos, and back again down the coast of Lakonia—the traveller reaches at length the southern shores of the Peloponnesos. In and out of the deep gulfs he is carried, along barren coasts, past the mouth of the Evrotas, round the lowest spurs of Taygetos, up the wild and rocky sea-line of the Maina, and so, by the Messenian capes, to the harbours of Koron, Modon and Navarino (the ancient Pylos). Northward now, by a comparatively unbroken coast, he sails past the lagoons of the Kyparissian Bay, past the mouth of the Alpheios, round the little promontory of the Fish (Ichthys), past the Bay and Cape of Tortoises (Chelonatas), from sacred Elis to fertile Achaia, by bustling Patrai, between the

Castles of Rhion and Antirrhion, and eastward along the smiling garden of the Korinthian Gulf. Akrokorinthos greets him next, and the narrow isthmus—walled, and all but pierc'd, by Greeks and Romans in succession.

Westward again, along the sinuous northern shore, from the Sea of Kingfishers (Halkyonic), almost under the shade of Helikon and Parnassos, by Naupaktos (Nafpaktos) and Mesolonghion, by the lagoons of Aitolia and Akarnania, past the shelving delta of Aspropotamos, he is borne amidst the hundred isles of the Ionian Sea. In and out of the Amvrakian Gulf, past Aktion and Nikopolis, rich with the memory of defeated Cleopatra, by Preveza and Parga, our traveller sails, along the coast of Epeiros, where Corfu still sighs for the liberation of her sister Greeks, and so onwards to the *infames scopuli* of Akrokeraunia.

Such a voyage as this would enable us to form a vivid idea of the general configuration of Greece; and at the same time it would prepare us to learn that the inhabitants of the coasts and islands are apt at maritime pursuits, bold and ready sailors, the ocean-carriers of the *Ægean* and the Levant, devoted to, and successful in, commerce. It would account, also, for the fact that these thousand over-hanging rocks and natural harbours, like the

western coasts of our own islands, became in other days the resort of pirates and smugglers, who carried on their illegitimate trade to comparatively recent times. A similar result was produced by the strongly-developed mountainous character of the interior country, which, like the coasts and islands, has in different ages insured to Greece so many advantages and such great disturbance. The surface of the land, on the continent and in the Peloponnesos, is broken up into mountain and valley, roads are few, locomotion is difficult, and, amongst other consequences, the pursuit of criminals escaping from justice is a very arduous task. When the government was tyrannical or unsettled, advantage was taken of these facts by desperate men to carry on the practice of brigandage. Thus it came to pass that the geographical position and configuration of Greece, combined with the misrule to which she had for centuries been subjected, made her a prey to pirates and land-robbers. At length, however, it is possible to say that the evil has disappeared. Brigands no longer count on immunity from the government of the country, but succeed in troubling it only by the weakness of its frontiers. Within the kingdom itself there has been no instance of brigandage since the year 1870, and the lawless bands which have infested Epeiros

and Thessaly have rarely attempted to visit the haunts which at one time they were wont to ravage. The Greek Government has been able to effect this all-important reform only by virtue of a firm determination, and by maintaining a strong and expensive frontier guard upon a boundary which is most arbitrarily drawn, and which is cut transversely by numerous mountain-gorges and torrent-beds.

Mountains.

If we glance at an orographical map of Greece (such as that which was prepared by the Chevalier Lapie for the use of the diplomatists in 1826) we shall be struck by the fact that the principal mountain ranges have a uniform direction from N.N.W. to S.S.E.; and this direction is manifest not only in the inland ranges but also in the coasts and in the island groups. Starting from the west we have the line of the Ionian Islands, the line of coast from Cape Glossa to Messenè, nearly all the ranges of Epeiros, the great Pindos range, continued by Mount Tymphrestos, the mountain chains which form the coast of Thessaly, Euboia, Attika, the promontories of Argolis, Lakonia (the Parnon range), Maina (the Taÿgetos range), the promontory of Messenè, and the double island range of the Archipelago.

These parallel lines once laid down, we have a good initial idea of the configuration of Greece. We may supplement it by adding the transverse lines, running east and west, of the Kambunian range, north of Thessaly ; the range connecting Metzovo and Ioannina ; the Othrys range, leaving the Pindos at Mount Hellovo, and terminating in Cape Stavros at the entrance to the Gulf of Volos ; the Οeta (Oita) range, stretching from Mount Tymphrestos along the coast of Lokris to Boiotia ; the broken range extending from Mount Parnassos in a south-easterly direction, through Helikon, Kithairon, Pentelikon and Hymettos, as far as Cape Sounion in Attika ; and the Erymanthos and Kyllene ranges in the northern Peloponnesos.

The most densely mountainous districts of Greece are those of the Pindos-Tymphrestos range, the section of continental Hellas from the Pelion-Ossa line to Phókis on the Korinthian Gulf, Northern Arkadia, and Messenè. The highest points are as follows :—Mount Liakoura (Parnassos), 8000 feet ; Mount St. Elias (Taÿgetos), 7600 feet ; Mount Velouchi (Tymphrestos), about the same height ; Aroania and Kyllene, in Achaia, about 7800 feet. The Pindos reaches a height of about 7000 feet.

When we have marked out on the map of
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Greece all these mountain ranges and groups, a small proportion of the surface remains. The most extensive plain is that of Thessaly, which is watered by the Salamvrias and its southern tributaries. In Epeiros we have the plain of Amvrakia, watered by the Arta (Arachthus). Of Boiotia the southern portion is a plain, watered by the Asopos ; of Attika, about one quarter. There are also fertile but not extensive plains in Akarnania, in Argolis (around Argos), in Lakonia (on the Evrotas), in Messenè, in Arkadia, and towards the shores of Elis and Achaia on the north-west. To atone for the scarcity of the plains, Greece has a large number of valleys interspersed amongst the mountains. Many of these are watered by streams, and the soil is exceedingly productive.

Rivers.

The following are the principal river-courses in the Greek peninsula :—

The Peneios, or Salamvrias, falls from Mount Lakmos, at the northern extremity of the Pindos range, in Epeiros, and flows east and south-east into Thessaly, receiving sundry tributaries on either hand. The largest of these are the Trikkalinos (Lethaios), the Komarkes, from the Kambulinos,

nian range, the Vliouri (Pamitos), the Elassonitikos (Evripos), and Phersalitikos (Apidanos). From Larissa the Pencios turns in a north-easterly direction, and flows through the vale of Tempè, between Olympos and Ossa, into the Thermaic Gulf.

From the same watershed fall the Aoös, or Voyussa, reaching the Adriatic near Aulon (Avlona) in Illyria; the Arachthus, or Arta, flowing south into the Amvrakian Gulf; the Acheloös, or Aspropotamos, which receives many tributaries from the Pindos and Tymphrestos ranges, and forms a large delta at the south-west of Akarnania; and also several other streams, flowing northwards to the Haliakmon.

The Kalamas, or Thyamis, drains Lake Ioannina, and flows (at first underground) into the Ionian Sea, opposite to Corfu.

The Spercheios (Alamana) falls from the watershed at the junction of the Pindos, Tymphrestos and Othrys ranges, and flows eastwards into the Maliac Gulf, where it appears to have formed the coast-line under the Oita range, known as the Pass of Thermopylai.

The Kephissos (Cephisus) falls from the southern slopes of the Oita range, taking tribute from Parnassos and Helikon, and flowing into and out of

the marsh of Kopaïs, to the Euboian channel. The small stream of the same name in Attika, with its tributary the Ilissos, is notable chiefly for the site of Athens, which is built between the two.

The largest river in the Peloponnesos is the Alpheios, falling from Mount Taÿgetos, on the southern border of Arkadia, and flowing (occasionally underground) through Elis into the Kyparissian Bay. Amongst its tributaries are the Erymanthos and the Ladon, from northern Arkadia.

The Evrotas falls from the same watershed, and flows southwards through Lakonia, into the Lakonian Gulf.

There are innumerable petty streams in addition to these, which assist in preserving the fertility of the Greek valleys and plains; but few of them are of special practical importance. There is not a single navigable river in Greece, and most of them alternate, according to the time of the year and the character of the season, between the conditions of a swollen torrent and a dry bed.

The action of several of these rivers tends to produce distinct modifications in the form of their banks, particularly at their outlet into the sea. The Spercheios has created, and continues to

enlarge, the Pass of Thermopylai. The Aspropotamos has had, and still has, a remarkable influence of this kind upon the soil of both banks, and of the alluvial promontory or delta at its mouth. The land-building and land-disturbing agency of this river and its tributaries, which was noted by the ancients, is further illustrated in the numerous marshes and lacustrine formations of Akarnania. The lagoons on the northern shore of the Gulf of Patrai, and, in a less marked development, along the western coast of the Peloponnesos, are due to the same processes. The Evrotas and other parallel streams have, in the course of ages, broken up the cretaceous and foliated rocks composing their beds, and converted the angle of the Lакonian Gulf into a fertile alluvial plain. A like result has been produced by the streams flowing into the Messenian Gulf, the rounded extremity whereof is a fairly exact copy of that formed by the Evrotas.

A characteristic phenomenon of the schistose and calcareous rocks of Greece is found in the subterranean lapses (*katavothra*) of some of the principal streams, notably of the Alpheios, Peneios, and Boiotian Kephissos. When these underground channels have become choked, an inundation of the upper banks has been the necessary result. Thou-

sands of acres of fertile land, once covered with vegetation, have been lost in this way—as at Tegea, Mantinea, and other places in Arkadia, at Stymphalos in Achaia, and in northern Boiotia, where Lake Kopaïs, now occupying an area of eighty or ninety square miles, has been allowed to swallow up historic cities. This lake was at one time drained by twenty subterranean channels, some of them being triumphs of engineering skill; but only one or two of these remained effective at the date of the Revolution.

It is doubtless to a great extent through neglect that the rivers of Greece have deteriorated in navigable and fertilizing value. The Attic Kephissos and Ilissos figure as important streams in the history of two thousand years ago, but now the latter is a dry bed, and the former is much shrunken. The Evrotas was at one time navigable for galleys at least as high as Sparta, and the Inachos as high as Argos. The gradual drying up of springs, the omission to seek and enlarge new ones, the want of care in preventing the obstruction of water-courses by the detritus from above, and the neglect of the *katavothira*, have all contributed to diminish the actual area of fertility in Greece, by submersion, or by desiccation, or by denudation of soil. Hence it is that the country is relatively less fertile now than it was in the classical age.





LAKE KOPĀS.

The total area of lakes and marshes in Greece is computed at 850,000 stremmas, or 212,500 acres. Lake Kopaïs, with the associated lakes Likeri and Paralimni, covers 216,000 stremmas; Lake Phe-neos, 7000; Lake Stymphalos, 5000; Lake Agrinion (Vrachori) 75,000; Lake Angelokastron, 10,000. The marshes alone are estimated at 200,000 stremmas. The importance of draining many of these watery wastes is not overlooked, and the drainage of Lake Kopaïs in particular has been more than once contemplated, both by the Government and by enterprising commercial men. The conveyance of the waters to the Euboian Channel would probably be the simplest mode of accomplishing this, and the restoration of the works of Krates and others might suffice to clear the district once occupied by the twelve cities overlooking the lake. A plan has been suggested for utilizing the water by carrying it in a canal to Athens, and if this should be found to be practicable no doubt the benefit would be very great.

That which is contemplated in regard to Lake Kopaïs was performed by nature for Lake Phe-neos, in Achaia. The two katavothra which partially drained this lake were allowed to become choked early in the present century. The waters gradually rose, until a large tract of fertile territory, with twelve inhabited villages, was submerged.

On the first day of 1833 a shock of earthquake was felt in Achaia, which had the effect of re-opening the larger katavothron ; and thus as much as 20,000 acres of land was regained on the borders of the lake.

Perhaps in no other civilized country is there so great a need of encouragement for the application of skill in aid of natural resources. The waters of Greece, for instance, are amply sufficient for the irrigation of the soil, but they require to be properly distributed, and maintained in circulation by a systematic expenditure of money and labour.

Minerals.

If the specially mountainous character of Greece renders the country unproductive in an agricultural sense, by comparison with lands in which the soil is more abundant and fertile, yet the rocks themselves may be regarded as being fertile in a very high degree. The application of labour and capital would make these vast natural treasures yield a large revenue to the State.

The geological formation of the country is well marked, and it presents distinct features in different localities.

Continental Greece, and many of the Kyklades,

are characterized by various forms of schist—that is to say, of quartz, laminated by the presence of some other mineral, such as mica or chlorite—alternating with calcareous layers.

The Peloponnesos is chiefly cretaceous ; but in the south, and in Mount Kyllenè, we meet with siliceous crystalline schists.

Most of the islands of the Archipelago, and especially Delos, Mykonos, Naxos, and Tenos, consist of metamorphosed rocks, or granites, which also underlie the schists of the continent. Almost the only place on the mainland where the granite appears above the surface is near Lavrion.

The volcanic range of Greece extends from Aigina, the peninsula of Methana, and Poros in the Saronic Gulf, to Kimolos, Melos, Santorini, and Anaphè. The volcanic action is not extinct, for it has generated several small islands in the Bay of Santorini during the present epoch. The circular form of this insular group, the shape of the greater and smaller Mount St. Elias, and the trachytes which underlie and crop up from the soil, all bespeak a distinct volcanic creation, the process of which has not yet definitively ceased.

In the neighbourhood of this volcanic line we meet, as we should expect to meet, with various formations of metamorphic and crystalline rocks.

In the Isthmus of Korinth we have tufa ; in Euboia, sandstone, porphyry, and serpentine ; in the Morea, tufa, sandstone, and porphyry ; in Melos, Santorini, and Naxos, large quantities of pure sulphur ; in Naxos, emery ; in Anaphè, asbestos ; in Corfu, saltpetre ; with granite, marbles, and other igneous and semi-igneous rocks profusely scattered over most of these localities.

Many other valuable minerals are or have been raised in Greece. Considerable quantities of gold were obtained from the island of Thasos, and also from the mines of Lavrion, near Cape Colonna, in Attika, notably in the days of Themistokles. The latter district is now worked for silver and lead by the Sounion Mining Company, for lead and zinc by a Franco-Greek Company, and for lead by the Perikles Mining Company. In addition to these, there is the Greek Lead Mining Company which purchased the rights of the Franco-Italian *concessionnaires* in 1872, and which now employs more than 2000 men, and turns out annually more than 8,000,000 tons of metal.

In the island of Keos, a geological continuation of Attika, there are deposits of silver-bearing lead, side by side with abundant stores of lignites. Veins of lead are also found at Anaphè and Melos, and amongst the trachytes generally.

Iron compounds, magnetic ironstones, and magnesites, occur in the serpentine and crystalline rocks of the continent and Euboia.

Small quantities of gold have been discovered in Euboia; copper in Attika and the Morea; jasper in Euboia, and in some parts of the continent and the Kyklades; malachite in the Morea and a few of the islands; amethysts in Melos; chalcedony on the mainland and in Euboia; obsidian in Melos and other islands. The more valuable metals, if they have not been obtained in large quantities, are at least sufficiently manifested to show that their yield may one day be a source of wealth to the country.

The sedimentary rocks are rich in limestones, plastic clays, gypsum, manganese, chalk, pipe-clay, and lignites. The latter are specially abundant in Euboia, and in some neighbouring districts on the continent.

Amongst the trachytes occur the porphyritic, the glassy trachyte, or obsidian, the vesicular, or millstone porphyry, the pumiceous trachyte; and, amongst the allied crystalline rocks, pitchstone and mica.

The siliceous, metamorphosed limestones of Greece, in the form of statuary marble, are the most characteristic mineral productions of the

country. The marble of Paros is white, close in texture, and semi-transparent; that of Mount Pentelikon, from which many of the finest sculptures of Athens were chiselled, is of a like character, though more liable to occur with red or green veins; in Naxos, Skyros, and a few other islands, the same class of marbles exist; in Lakonia are found black, red, grey, and green marbles; in Tenos, marbles of every known shade. Many quarries are being worked; but increased capital is needed for the development of this, as of all the other industries of Greece. Flag-stones have recently been exported in abundance from Amorgos to the principal centres of Greek population.

Rock salt is found in Melos; and large supplies of the same mineral are obtained by evaporation on the coasts.

The mineral springs of Greece are numerous and valuable. Cold sulphur springs occur on Mount Kyllenè and in Kephallenia; sulphurous, ferruginous, muriatic, and other waters, abound in various parts of the country. The most noted of these are the springs of Thermopylai; of Aidipsos (Lipso) in Euboia; of Methana, of Melos, of Kenchrea, of Kythnos, and of Hypatè, near Lamia. Some of these thermal waters were celebrated in antiquity, and were constantly resorted to for curative purposes.

Plutarch mentions that Sylla, during his military operations in Greece, visited Aidipsos, in the hope of shaking off the gout ; and possibly it was at the baths of Kenchrea that Paul shaved his head, and sought to rid himself of his “ thorn in the flesh.”

On the whole, Greece is decidedly rich in the variety of its mineral deposits ; and the great age and fecundity of the Attic mines, and of the marble quarries of Pentelikon, Paros, and the Kyklades, show that some of them, at all events, occur in great abundance.

Flora.

Vegetation in Greece may be described as natural luxuriance qualified by destruction and neglect. Wherever, under due influence of temperature, sunshine, irrigation, and tillage, the soil is put to a reasonable test, very valuable results are obtained, as we shall find in considering the agricultural statistics of the country. But unassisted nature yields harvests of wealth which may be reaped at any moment, and which must be regarded as a noteworthy item of the national resources.

The forests of Greece have greatly deteriorated since the classical age, and especially in certain localities. “The Athenians can no longer hunt bears in the forests on Lycabettus ; and the

Nemæan lion would have much difficulty in these days to escape observation, where he formerly reigned secure in the impervious jungles of Argolis. A modern traveller would be puzzled to cut even a walking-stick in the forest which once furnished the famous club of Hercules, whilst the wooded haunts of the Erymanthian boar are at present reduced to a few Arcadian shrubs of luxuriant growth. The shady groves of Olympia and Epidaurus are now open plains; and Hymettus presents the appearance of but the skeleton of a mountain." (*Strong.*)

The forests have suffered from the desiccation or denudation of the soil, and from the wholesale cutting-down of trees, which has not been compensated by fresh plantations. Nevertheless, the wooded districts of Greece, excluding Thessaly and Epeiros, have an extent of about 6,000,000 stremmas, or 1,500,000 acres. A certain proportion of these districts are State domains, and the Government has rights of control over the remainder; but it cannot be said that adequate provision has yet been made, either for the safeguarding of the forests or for their utilization as sources of revenue.

The principal timber forests are those of Akarnania, of the slopes of the Oita range, of Parnassos,

of Taÿgetos, of the Pholoë range, between Elis and Arkadia, of Mount Kyllene, of Boiotia, and Euboia. The most valuable timber-trees are the pine, oak, chestnut, and ash, which are distributed as follows:—

The Italian pine (*Pinus maritima*) is the characteristic tree of the mountain forests, and grows freely in Lakonia, Elis, Phokis, Lokris, and Euboia. It requires little moisture in the soil, and its wood is hard and highly resinous. It grows to the height of seventy or eighty feet, and is used in ship-building, in the erection of structures exposed to the action of water, in the preparation of charcoal, &c.

The white fir (*P. abies*) grows on the highest slopes of the mountains of Lakonia, Messenia, Achaia, Phokis, Aitolia, &c. It is of slower growth, and reaches a greater size, than the Italian pine; and, whilst it seeks a moister soil, its wood is only serviceable for use under dryer conditions, as for instance in house-building.

Another pine (*P. pinea*) grows plentifully; as a rule below the zone where the white fir begins (1000 feet above the sea). Its growth is rapid, and its full size is less than that of the Italian pine, whilst its wood is less valuable for building purposes. Its appearance approximates to that of the

palm, and its seeds (*koukounaria*) are eaten, alone or in confectionery.

The Italian oak (*Quercus cyslca*) is very abundant in the Peloponnesos, and in the southern portions of the continent. It prefers a deep soil, and grows to a height of about sixty feet ; but still finer specimens are found in Euboia. The wood is hard, dark, and of great specific gravity, and is useful for ship-building, machinery, &c. The bark and smaller branches are employed in tanning, and the heavy crops of acorns and galls make the dense forests of Italian oak especially serviceable.

The chestnut (*Castanea vesca*) grows freely on the mountain slopes, up to an elevation of 2000 feet. Its wood is tough, and polishes beautifully, so that it is useful for furniture, turnery, &c. The fruit yields starch, and is occasionally consumed as an article of food.

There is another species of oak, perhaps more strictly indigenous to Greece than the Italian oak, which occurs in considerable quantity. Its wood is less dense, but it is applied to similar purposes.

Other trees are commonly found in various parts of the country, though not in forests. The plantain (*Platanus orientalis*) attains great size and age, measuring occasionally more than thirty feet in circumference at a height of five feet from the

ground. Its wood is white, and is used for furniture and carving, for charcoal, and (the smaller branches) for basket-making. The Valonea oak (*Q. ægilops*) is found in Lakonia, Messenia, and, generally, in the same regions as the Italian oak. It occasionally grows to a great size. Its acorn-cups are very large, and are serviceable in the tanning of leather. Under the name of valonea they are an important item in the list of Greek exports. The kermes oak (*Q. coccifera*) produces a red pigment (prinokokki) from its galls, which is an article of commerce. The ilex oak and the ash are valuable for their hard woods. The former, like the elm, is rarely met with. The beech occurs in oak forests in the Peloponnesos, and in districts of Euboea.

There are also found in Greece the black erl, the winter linden, the cypress, yew, poplar (*Populus græca*), white willow, ahorn, Judas tree, laurel, pomegranate, almond, walnut, plum, evergreen cherry, wild cherry, pear and arbutus.

Fruit-bearing trees and bushes, which yield abundant and increasingly valuable articles of commerce, are the currant, mulberry (black and white), olive, fig, vine, orange, citron, bergamots, and other "Hesperidean" fruits.

More or less recently has been introduced the

culture of cotton, tobacco, rice, flax, opium, and madder.

Corn, barley, maize, and other cereals, are largely cultivated throughout Greece.

The wild plants and flowers, both of the mainland and of the islands, on the hill-sides and in the valleys, are very numerous, of rich fragrance, and often of extreme beauty. Roses, balsams, geraniums, heliotropes, hyacinths, jasmines, myosotis, mignonette, lilies, thyme, and many more, bloom in profusion during the greater part of the year, and afford not only pasture for the bees but also a constant charm for the lover of nature.

Fauna.

Wild animals are common in most parts of Greece, and especially of continental Greece; but very few of them are beasts of prey. Wild boars have been found in the forests of Akarnania, and of the western Tymphrestos range. Wolves are seen in the same districts, and in the Othrys mountains. Jackals are more common, but it is seldom that they trouble the agriculturist who takes ordinary precautions to defend his flocks. Wild cats are found in Attika and Arkadia.

Birds of prey, such as eagles, vultures, and

hawks, are frequently seen on the mountains, and throughout most of the provinces and islands. About forty species have been enumerated.

Game abounds in the country. In addition to the beasts of prey, which may be classed under this head, hares and rabbits are numerous ; and so are quails, woodcock, and snipe. Birds of passage (whereof there are about 165 species) appear in due season. Wild fowl, swans, geese, turkeys, quails, are observed in large flocks, as on most of the Mediterranean shores, going to or returning from the north. Pelicans, a few storks, and other wading birds, are found in the marshy districts. Pheasants are rarely found, but partridges are not uncommon.

The smaller song-birds and others are not rare in Greece. Nightingales frequent the Peloponnesos generally, and abound in the Arkadian and Messenian groves. As many as 135 species of the order of perching birds (*Passeres*) have been observed, 94 of them breeding within the country. The larks, ortolans, loriots, merles, and a few others, are much in request as articles of food ; but, as there is no law to protect them, many of the birds most serviceable to the agriculturist are ruthlessly killed. The sacred birds of Minerva are yet very common, though the Akropolis of Athiens

itself is not so highly favoured by them as was once the case.

The domestic animals, and the quadrupeds used for labour and for food, are mainly of the species known in all temperate regions. Up to the establishment of the kingdom camels were employed as beasts of burden ; but they have since died out. Mules, horses, and asses, are now relied on for the same purpose, whilst oxen and buffaloes assist in the work of agriculture. Goats are kept in large numbers ; and sheep and swine are fairly abundant, the number of the former being estimated at about 2,100,000.

Amongst fish, the tunny, sardine, anchovy, red mullet, mackerel, and eel, are most abundant, and are industriously taken, though the trade in them scarcely extends beyond the country. Salmon are found in the lakes of Aitolia, and the river Acheloös. These lakes, and the lagoons on the shore, are subdivided into fishing-grounds, which are put up to auction by the State every ten years. In the waters of Mesolonghion there are oyster fisheries.

Reptiles are very common in Greece, and two kinds of vipers are slightly poisonous.

Of insects the most characteristic, and at any rate the most valuable, is the bee. Honey is still

found wild, as well as cultivated, on Mount Hymettos, where the thyme and heather impart to it a peculiar aromatic flavour. On the other hand, honey procured by bees from certain plants, as the *Azalea pontica* and *Kalmia latifolia*, is generally unwholesome. Excellent honey is also found in other parts of Greece; and that at Karysto, in northern Lakonia, is highly valued. The gall-producing insects (*Coccus ilicis*, &c.) also contribute to the wealth of the country.

Lions, hyænas, and a few other wild animals of the fiercer kind known to the ancient Greeks, have disappeared. The cranes of Thessaly, mentioned by Plato, the mouse-killing martens, the fighting quails, the apes, peacocks, dolphins, and other more or less authenticated inhabitants of the Greece of two thousand years ago, have either entirely quitted the country or ceased to be domesticated or reverenced.

Climate and Health.

There are certain natural and fair deductions, so far as regards the climate of Greece, which may be made from the previously mentioned facts as to the configuration of its surface. From the great indentation of the coasts, whereby a remark-

able proportion of the land is exposed to the influence of the sea, from the equable character of the Mediterranean and the Levant, from the low latitude of the country, the effect of the southern and south-western winds, the diversity of mountain and plain, the aspect of the mountain slopes, as well as from the composition of the rocks and soil, we should be prepared to hear that the climate of Greece was characteristically fine, mild, regular, and dry, that the atmosphere was clear, and, at a certain height, rarefied and bracing. Such, in fact, is the case. Greece enjoys many combined advantages of natural position, and the consequence is that its inhabitants are specially favoured by the salubrity of the conditions under which they live.

With regard to the clearness of the atmosphere, travellers have observed that an unusually wide landscape is presented to the eye at almost any elevated point. From Mount Hymettos the spectator can see the whole of Attika, Boiotia, and Euboia, and many of the islands of the Archipelago. From Mount Ithome, in Messenia, it is said to be possible during the greater portion of the year to see the islands of Zante and Kephallenia, at a distance of more than one hundred miles. The brightness of the air prevails even in winter;

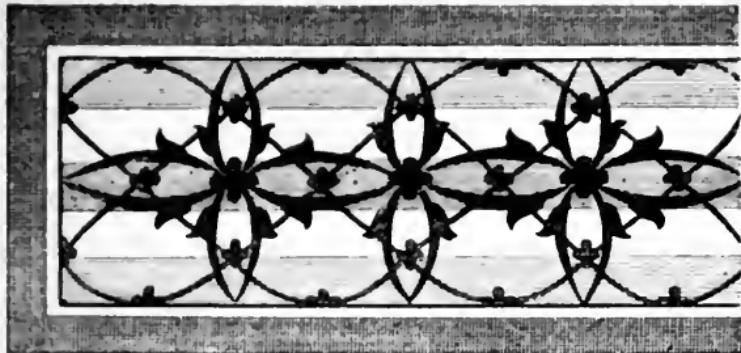
mists are rare, and the sun shines on almost every day of the twelvemonth.

The succession of the seasons, and the variations of heat from day to day, are notably regular. From about the middle of June to the end of August the heat is great, often varying from 100° to 110° Fahrenheit. A few thunderstorms then introduce the cooler months of autumn. The winter season sets in towards the end of November. January is the coldest month, though the mean temperature from December to February is not lower than 60° Fahrenheit during the day. Snow falls on the higher mountain chains, but rarely on or near the sea level. The Greeks consider their summer to last from May to October, allowing barely two months each for spring and autumn. Cloudy skies are rare, and fogs almost unknown in the plains; whilst the average fall of rain during a whole year is less than 15 inches.

"From observations made during a long series of years it appears," says M. Mansolas, "that we have annually an average of 203 clear days, 134 partly clear days, and 24 dull days; whilst of the latter there are only five on which the sun does not show itself. The greatest number of clear days occur in July and August, namely, 26 or 27

days, and the remaining days of these months are partly clear. The number of stormy days is about 20 in the year."

It follows that Greece is, generally speaking, a healthy country. The mildness of its climate suits invalids suffering from lung and bronchial diseases ; whilst the hygienic conditions of certain particular localities, of the air, of the soil, and of the mineral springs, are very favourable. On the other hand, some of the marshy and badly-drained neighbourhoods are malarious ; and the excessive heats of summer are occasionally injurious to children and weak persons.



CHAPTER III.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

AT the date of the last census, July, 1879, the kingdom of Greece was divided into 13 nomarchies (provinces or departments), 59 eparchies, and 366 demarchies (communes).

The monarchies are as follows :—

In Continental Greece.

Attika and Boiotia . .	<i>chief town,</i> Athens.
Phthiotis and Phokis . .	„ Lamia.
Aitolia and Akarnania . .	„ Mesolonghion.

In the Peloponnesos.

Korinth and Argolis . .	<i>chief town,</i> Nauplia.
Achaia and Elis . .	„ Patrai.

Messenia	<i>chief town</i> , Kalamata.
Arkadia	„ Tripolis.
Lakonia	„ Sparta.

In the Ægean.

Euboia	<i>chief town</i> , Karystia.
Kyklades	„ Hermoupolis.

In the Ionian Sea.

Kerkyra (Corfu) . . .	<i>chief town</i> , Corfu.
Kephallenia	„ Argostolion.
Zakynthos (Zante) . . .	„ Zante.

Attika and Boiotia.

The nomarchy of Attika and Boiotia contains about 2450 square miles, and constitutes the eastern portion of Sterea Hellas. Its population is about 185,000,¹ distributed over the five eparchies of Attika, Aigina, Thebes (Thevai), Megaris, and Levadeia.

The eparchy of Attika has 116,000 inhabitants; the computation in classical times having been 480,000. Its mountains are Parnes, Pentelikon, Lykavetos, Hymettos, and Lavrion, with the pro-

¹ The population is taken (in round numbers) from the census of 1879. The figures quoted in connexion with towns indicate the number of inhabitants in the corresponding *demos*.

montory of Sounion; its plains, those of Athens, Marathon, and Eleusis (*Elefsis*); its rivers, Kephissos and Ilissos.

Athens (*Athenai*) is the metropolis of Greece, and contains about 70,000 inhabitants (as compared with 180,000 in the classical age). It is built on the north side of the Ilissos, on a plain stretching from the foot of Mount Lykavetos westwards to the Gulf of Aigina. In the midst of the ancient city, but near the south-west boundary of the modern, is the Akropolis, an isolated rock about 150 feet high, 1150 feet long, and 500 feet broad. New Athens, extending towards the slopes of Lykavetos, is built chiefly of marble, with well-planned streets, squares, and gardens. On the extreme east is the royal palace, on a commanding site, fronted by a large square. Running in a straight line from this square through the city is Hermes Street, a broad avenue, the line of which is continued by another road as far as the Peiraios. Stretching right and left from the palace are two fine boulevards, and between the first of these and the foot of Lykavetos are the University, with its museums, laboratories, and national library, and the City Hospital. Amongst the other public buildings in Athens are the Odeion, the Polytechneion, the Archaeological

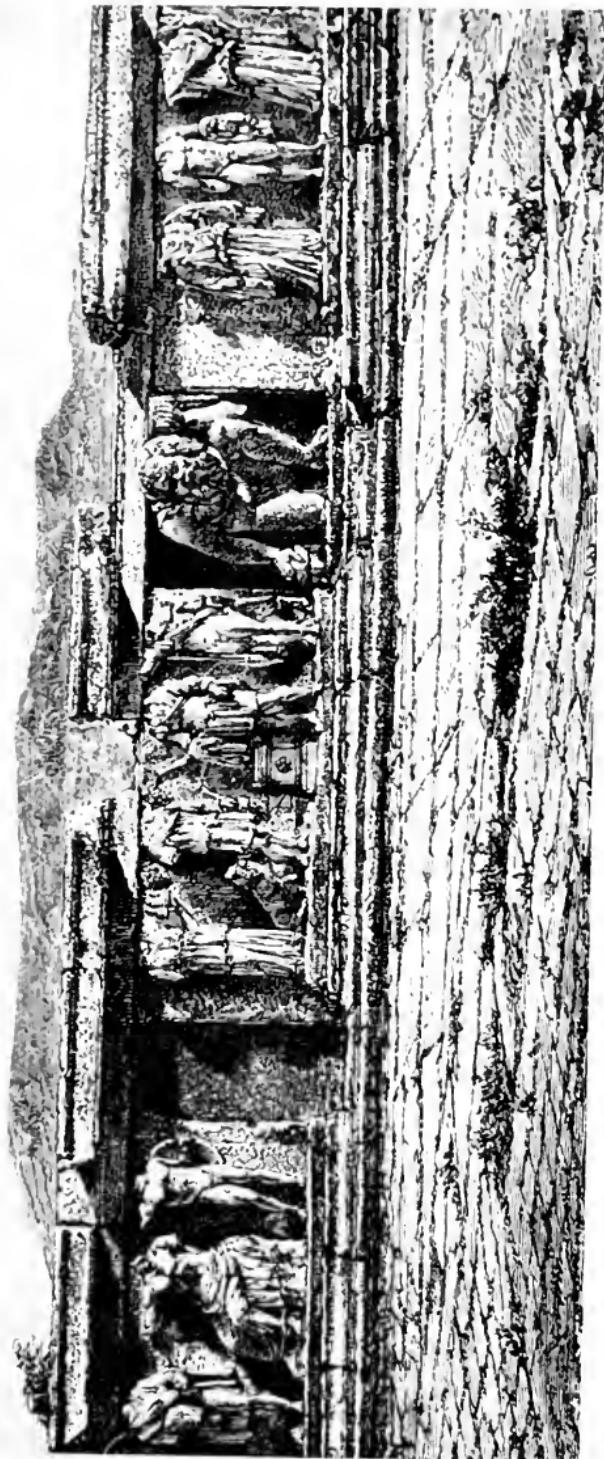
Museum, the Observatory, many benevolent institutions, including hospitals and asylums, the magnificent edifice of the Academy of Sinas, the Lyceum of Varvaki, the Parthenagogeion of Arsakis, the Seminary of Rhizaris, and other schools and municipal erections.

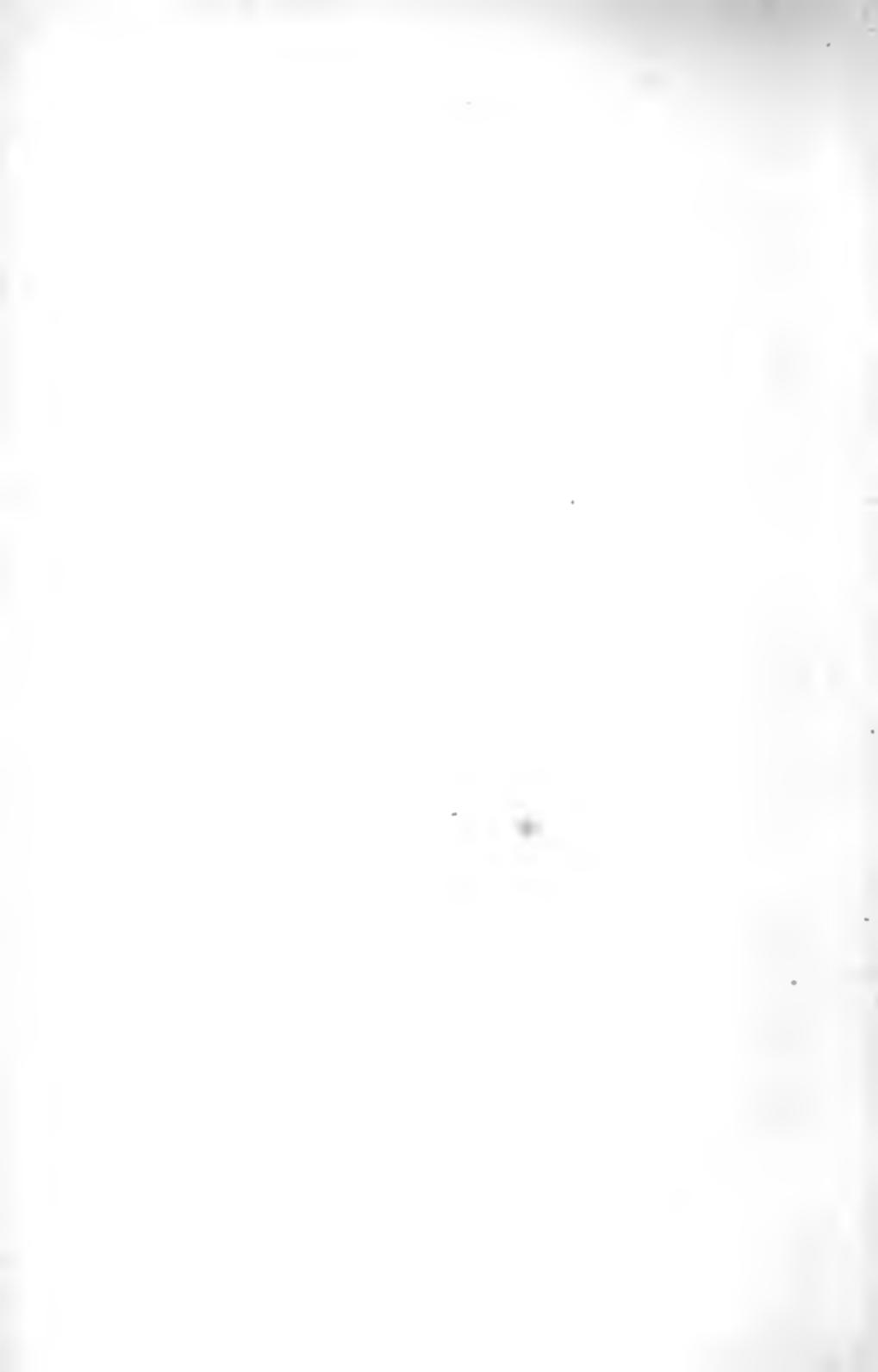
Of the ruins of ancient Athens, the most notable are the Propylaia at the western extremity of the Akropolis, the Parthenon, and the Erechtheion, with the minor temple of Nikè, on the same height. Below, on the bank of the Ilissos, are to be seen sixteen columns of the temple of Olympian Zeus, with the Stadion on the opposite side of the river. Nearer to the foot of the Akropolis are the monument of Lysikrates, the recently excavated Theatre of Dionysos, and the Odeion of Herodes Atticus, which seated 6000 persons. Further to the west is the temple of Theseus; and, towards the centre of the new town, the gate of the Agora, and the Temple of the Winds.

The Peiraios is the largest and most important of the three harbours of Athens, neither Mounychia nor Phaleron having much trade, though the latter has made considerable progress² since the completion of the railway from Athens to the Peiraios. This rapidly increasing town, which is about four

² Chiefly as a summer resort for the inhabitants of the capital.

THE THEATRE OF DIONYSOS.





miles and a half from the capital, contains now some 21,600 inhabitants, and is a well-built and wealthy place. In addition to its shipping trade, it carries on the manufacture of machinery, yarns, glass, pottery, &c.; it has iron furnaces and works, large depôts, with many municipal and educational buildings, including the Military Academy, a Gymnasium, Hellenic Schools, and a library.

Other places in the same eparchy are Menidi (Acharnai), having 2000 inhabitants; Tatogi (Dekeleia), containing a royal country residence and having in its neighbourhood the fortress of Phylè; Marathon, on the eastern coast of Attika; Kephisia (one of the twelve cities of Kekrops), a favourite resort of the Athenians in the summer; Marousion; Herakleion, founded by King Otho; Keratia; Lavrion (Laurium), the centre of a large mining district; and Thorikos, opposite to the island of Helenè.

The eparchy of Aigina, containing 7000 inhabitants, includes the island of that name, in the Saronic Gulf, and the adjacent island of Ankistrion. The town of Aigina has 3000 inhabitants, and has a fair shipping trade. The majority of the islanders are agriculturists, and the soil, both on the plains and on the slopes of Mount St. Elias (2800 feet),

is fertile and well-wooded. On this island are the ruins of the temple of Zeus Panhellenios.

The eparchy of Megaris (18,500) lies between Mount Kithairon and the Saronic Gulf, between Attika and Mount Geraneion—the last-named chain dividing the Peloponnesos from Sterea Hellas. The land is rocky, with the exception of a small plain in the centre, and the inhabitants are poor. The only town of any size is Megara, with 5000 souls; but it is ill-built, with small houses and narrow streets.

Eleusis, over against the island of Salamis, once famous for the temple of Demeter and the Eleusinian mysteries, still contains the ruins of the ancient temple; but the statue of the goddess was brought to England in 1801. On the island of Salamis is the town of the same name, containing 3200 inhabitants, engaged in agriculture, fishing, and a small carrying trade.

The eparchy of Thebes contains about 23,000 inhabitants, about one-fourth of whom reside in the commune of Thebes, the ancient capital of Boiotia, now of comparatively slight importance. A few miles west of the chief town is Thespiai (Eremokastron), famous for having supplied Leonidas with 200 men for his defence of Thermopylai. Between the two is Leuktra, now Leuka; and



A CAPITAL ; ELEUSIS.

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south of this line, on the northern slopes of Kithairon, the modern representative (Kokla) of the ancient Plataiai.

To the northward, in the same historic tract, are Askre (Palaiapanagia), the birthplace of Hesiod ; Mazi and Moulki (formerly Haliastos and Onchestos) ; on Lake Kopaïs, Tanagra ; Delion, on the Euboian channel (where Sokrates saved the life of Xenophon) ; and Avlis, the cradle of the expedition against Troy.

The eparchy of Levadeia (20,000) is bounded by Helikon and Parnassos on the south and north, and includes the larger portion of the great lake of Kopaïs. The shores of the lake are fertile, and produce considerable quantities of rice and cereals. The town of Levadeia (5700) has a small cotton industry. The plain of Chaironea, the scene of Philip's victory, is still distinguished by the fragments of the colossal lion³ which marked the grave of the Thebans and Argives. Kapraina is the modern name of the village nearest to that famous site. Arachova (3000), where Karaïskakis obtained a victory over the Turks in 1826, has a fair trade in wine. Orchomenos, on Lake Kopaïs, Davlia, and Distomia, are places of some importance.

³ Now about to be restored.

Phthiotis and Phokis.

The nomarchy of Phthiotis and Phokis contains about 2250 square miles, and 128,000 inhabitants. It includes the eparchies of *Phthiotis, Lokris, Parnassis, and Doris.

The eparchy of Phthiotis (53,000) lies between mounts Oita and Othrys, and stretches from Tymphrestos to the eastern coast. Its chief town is Lamia (10,000), which has derived special note from its strategic position near the first frontier of modern Greece. It is partly fortified, and has a citadel, the Akrolamia. It is connected by good roads with Stylis and Hypatè, and drives a busy trade with the surrounding country. Stylis (Phalara), on the Maliac gulf, has 4250 inhabitants, and is a small manufacturing town. Hypatè, or Neai Patrai (6000), near the right bank of the Spercheios, is famous for its medicinal springs. It is one of the many towns burnt by the Turks in the war of liberation ; and it contains the ruins of its ancient grandeur. Gardiki (near Kremastè Larissa), Sourpè, and Nea Mizela (Amaliopolis), are small towns on the coast of Levadeia.

The eparchy of Lokris (23,600) contains the towns of Atalantè (3000), near which are the ruins of the ancient Opus and Kunos ; Nea Pella (900),

colonized by Makedonians; Elateia, Larymnè, Drymia, and Molos. The country is rich in corn, well watered, and industriously cultivated. The Pass of Thermopylai has been widened by the action of the Spercheios and other rivers, from barely twenty to as much as 1800 feet.

The eparchy of Parnassis (28,000) contains Amphissa (6800), Delphoi (Kastri), once famous for its oracle, for the spring of Kastalia, and for the Pythian games; Antikirra, on the Gulf of Korinth, where grew the white and black hellebore, reputed to be efficacious for the cure of madness; Krissa, Gravia, the scene of some of the earliest exploits of Odysseus in 1821; Topolia, Galaxeidion (5000), or Oianthè, on the Gulf of Krissa, one of the largest naval depôts of Greece; Mavrolithari (4000), and Agoriani (1000).

The eparchy of Doris (22,700) occupies the western corner of the nomarchy, between Aitolia and the Gulf of Korinth. The principal towns are Lidorikion, Vitrinitza, on the site of the ancient coast town of Tolophon; Granitza, and Artotina, the centre of a busy agricultural district.

Aitolia and Akarnania.

The nomarchy of Aitolia and Akarnania contains about 2850 square miles and 138,400 in-

habitants, divided amongst the eparchies of Mesolonghion, Naupaktia, Trichonia, Evrytania, Valtos, and Vonitza-Xeromeros.

The eparchy of Mesolonghion (22,000) has for its chief town Mesolonghion (Missolonghi, 8000), on a broad inlet of the Gulf of Patrai, the entrance to which is barred by a long chain of islands. The town is strongly fortified, and is specially famed (being a place of modern origin) for the three sieges of 1821, 1823, and 1826, on the last of which occasions it made an heroic resistance to the Egyptian Ibrahim Pasha. It was here that Lord Byron spent the last few months of his career. Mesolonghion enjoys a healthy climate, and is frequented by invalids. Mavrommati is on the site of the ancient Kalydon, on the slopes of Mount Arakynthos, and on the right bank of the Evenos. Many relics of antiquity are preserved here, and on the sites of Plevron and Chalkis. Aitolikon (4000), north-west of Mesolonghion, is built on an island, connected with the mainland by a stone bridge, and has a considerable trade.

The eparchy of Naupaktia (25,500), east of the last-named, includes the strip of coast on which is the fortress of Antirrhion, and which yet bears the name of Venetikon. The chief town is Naupaktos

(5000), well fortified by the Venetians; Platanos (1300), and Lompotinè (1000).

The eparchy of Trichonia (17,600) lies between the rivers Evenos and Acheloös, and encloses the lake or marsh of Trichonis. The principal towns are Agrinion (Vrachori, 7000), in the midst of a fertile plain; Taxiarches, Chrysovitzà, Petrochori; with the ruins of Thermon and Trichonion.

The eparchy of Evrytania (34,000), on the borders of Epeiros, is a very mountainous district, the inhabitants of which are more uncouth than the Greeks of the plains, and include a small number of Albanians. The principal town is Karpenesion (8400), inhabited mainly by shepherds and goatherds. It was near this place that Markos Botzares fell in 1823. Other smaller towns are Krikellon, Amplianè, Prousos, Phournas, Granitza, and Agrapha.

The eparchy of Valtos (16,000) touching the Gulf of Arta, has few towns of any size, the principal being Amvrakia (5100), near which are the ruins of Limnaia and Amphilochikon Argos: Lepenon, and Phloriada.

The eparchy of Vonitza-Xeromeros (22,000) comprises the western promontory of Sterea Hellas, and includes the towns of Vonitza (6750), near the ancient Anaktorion, and Aktion, at the entrance of

the Gulf of Arta ; Zaverda, opposite to the island of Leukas (Santa Maura) ; Katouna (Medeon), Astakos ; Oineiadai, near the mouth of the Acheloös ; Rigani, Metropolis, and many minor places ; whilst off the coast are a large number of islands, mostly uninhabited, which form the group of the Echinades.

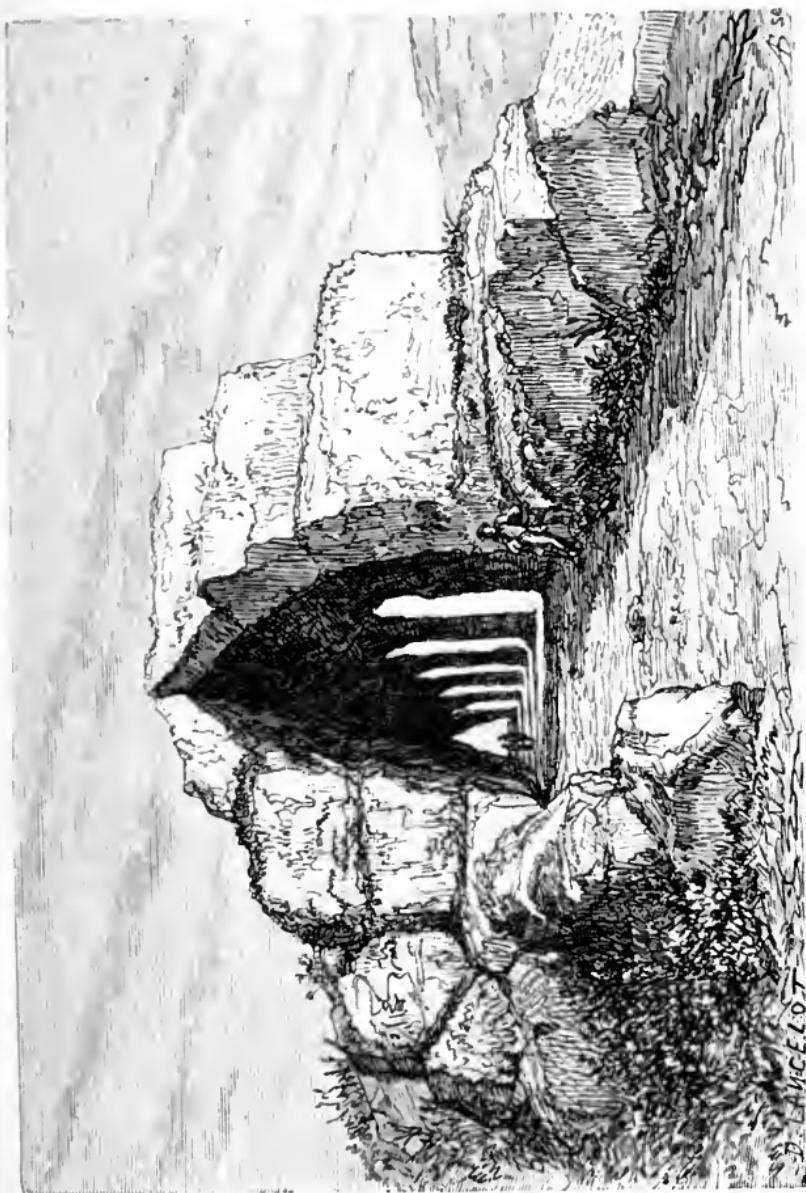
Korinth and Argolis.

The nomarchy of Korinth and Argolis contains about 1840 square miles and 136,000 inhabitants, distributed over the eparchies of Nauplia, Argolis, Spetzai-Hermionis, Hydrea-Troizenia, Korinth, and Kythera (Cerigo).

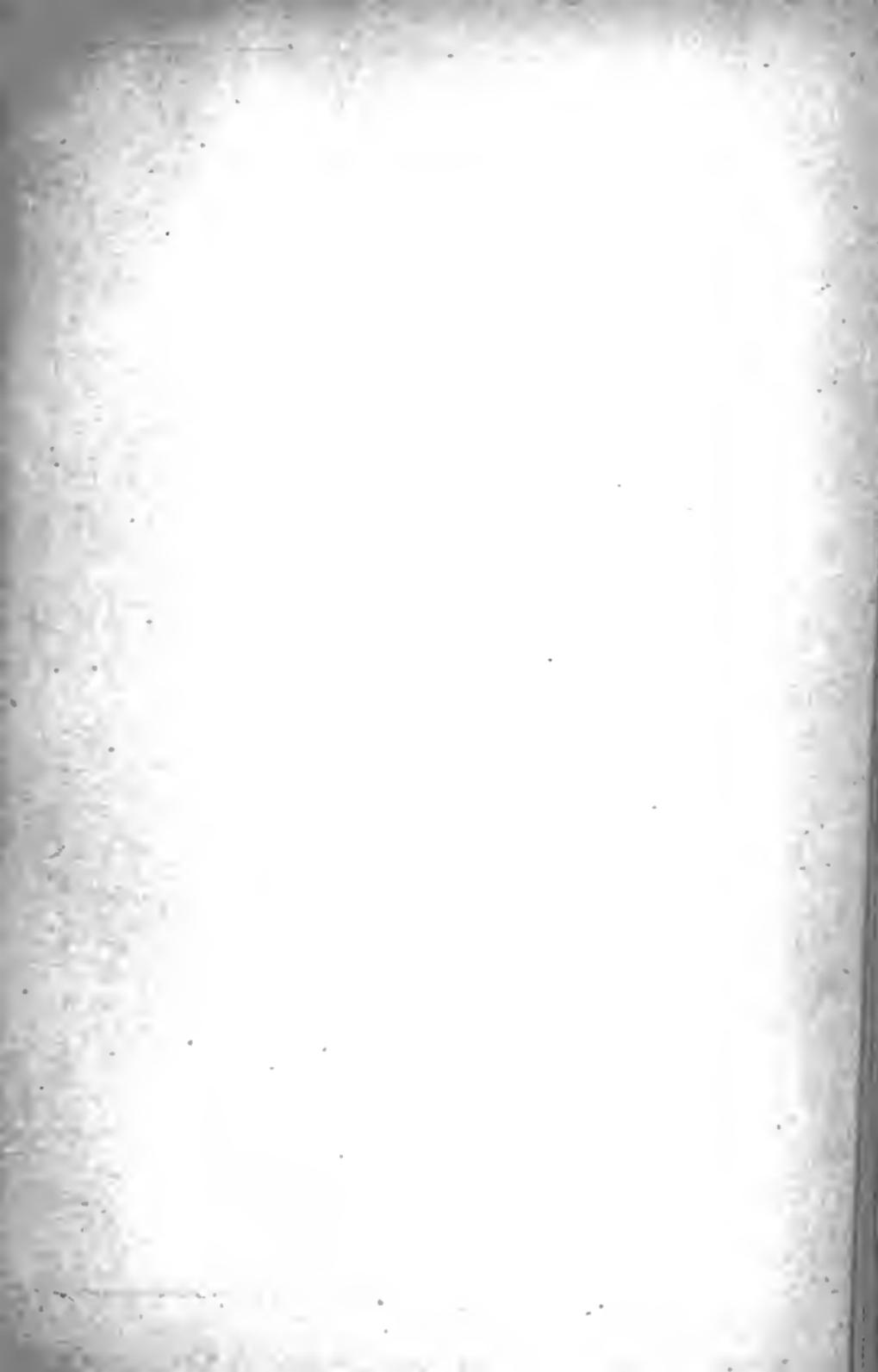
The eparchy of Nauplia (16,000) commands the Gulf of Argolis, on which is the strong town of Nauplion (9000), rebuilt by the Venetians. It is a naval dépôt of considerable importance, having large gymnasia, a hospital, prison, broad streets, and public buildings. It was the capital of Greece under Capodistria, who built himself a palace, and established several of the institutions to which it owes its present standing. In the neighbourhood are Pronoia, where the first National Assembly of the whole of Greece elected Otho of Bavaria in 1832 ; Tiryns, the city of Proteus, Perseus, and Herakles, with its famous Kyklopean walls ;

CORRIDOR AT TIRYNS.

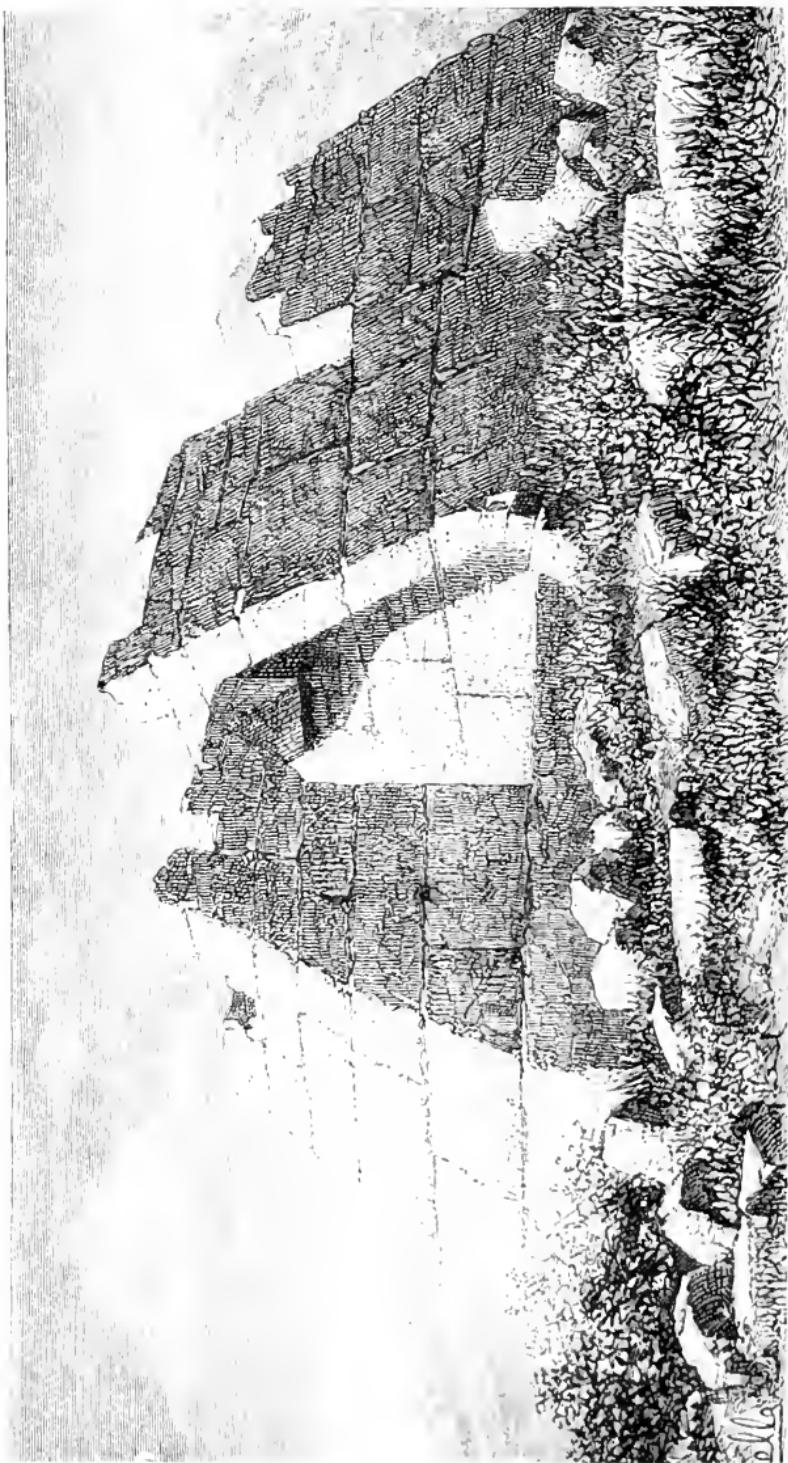
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URBANUS RUINS NEAR ARGOS



Epidavros, on the Saronic Gulf, where the Greeks held their first Assembly after the outbreak of 1821, and where are still preserved the ruins of a theatre and temple of Asklepios. Cheli and Ligourion are the remaining places of note.

The eparchy of Argolis (23,000) includes Argos (11,000), a few miles from the head of the gulf, which shows the ruins of its ancient larissa, or citadel; Mykenai, where is the tomb of Agamemnon, and the treasury of Atreus, from whence a number of interesting relics were recently transferred to the museum at Athens; Achladokampos, Karya, Bougiati, &c.

The eparchy of Spetzai-Hermionis (17,000) includes the western promontory of Argolis and the flourishing island of Spetzai (6900), the inhabitants whereof are engaged in shipbuilding and navigation. The towns of Hermionè (2000) and Kranidion (6700) are centres of a fair agricultural and coasting trade.

The eparchy of Hydrea-Troizenia (17,000) includes the eastern promontory of Argolis and the islands of Hydra and Poros, or Kalauria. Hydra, the ancient Hydrea, contains the modern-built town of the same name, with an industrious and well-to-do population of about 6800. The pursuits of the inhabitants are much the same with those

of the Spetziotes—the two islands having contributed notably to the liberation and commercial advance of the country. The town of Poros has a safe harbour, with a double entrance, in the channel between the island and the mainland. Other places of note are the ruins of Troizen and Saron, and the town of Methana, on the promontory of the same name.

The eparchy of Korinth (48,500) extends from Megaris to the borders of Achaia, and includes the ruins of the famous city of the same name, which was estimated to have a circumference of eighty stadia (over nine miles), and a population of 300,000. The number inhabiting New Korinth is about 7600. Other towns are Kraneion, Hexamillion, with the ruins of the temple of Poseidon, and the Stadion, where, every three years, the Isthmian games were wont to be held; Perachora, Sophikon; Vasilika, near the ancient city of Sikyon; Trikala, the centre of a currant-growing district; Hagios Georgios, an inland town on the site of the ancient Phlius, &c.

The eparchy of Kythera (13,000), the smallest eparchy in continental Greece, consists of the islands of Kythera and Antikythera, which, formerly grouped with the Ionian Isles, are now considered as belonging to the nomarchy of Korinth,

though they are geologically a continuation of the eastern promontory of Lakonia. The town of Kythera (6600), with its harbour Kapsalion, does a fair trade in oil, honey, and fruits.

Achaia and Elis.

The nomarchy of Achaia and Elis contains about 1950 square miles and 182,000 inhabitants. Its eparchies are those of Patrai (Patras), Aigialeia, Kalavryta and Eleia.

The eparchy of Patrai (57,000) extends along the north-western coast of the Peloponnesos, from the promontories of Drepanon, Rhion, Araxos and Chelonatas, to the mouth of the Alpheios. Patrai (34,000), is the largest and wealthiest town of western Greece, being well built, with good streets and public edifices, having gymnasia, a theatre, and, a short distance from shore, a lighthouse. It was a favourite town with the Romans, and became one of the earliest centres of Christian teaching in Greece, after the martyrdom of the Apostle Andrew. It is now an important trading town, shipping a large proportion of the currants, oil, wine, and fruits produced in the north-western Morea. Other towns are Prostovitza, Erymanthos, and Chalandritza.

The eparchy of Aigialeia (17,000) includes the plain of Aigion (Vostitsa), the slopes of Erymanthos, the valleys of a number of streams flowing into the Gulf of Korinth, and the valley of Krathis. Aigion (12,800), is almost the only town of importance.

The eparchy of Kalavryta (41,500), south of Aigialeia, includes the town of Kalavryta, Hagia Lavra, the monastery where Bishop Germanos raised the standard of insurrection in 1821; Megalon Spelaion, a monastery founded in the second century after Christ, containing venerable relics and a rich library; and the towns of Leivartson, Sopoton, Kerpinè, &c.

The eparchy of Eleia (65,000) contains the chief town Pyrgos (6000), near the mouth of the Alpheios, with its harbour Katakolo, a busy trading town, receiving much of the produce of the southern plain of Elis. Originally Pyrgos was, as its name implies, a tower, built for refuge for the inhabitants of this plain. Other towns are Gastouni, Lechaina, Androvida, Dirvè. The principal ancient towns in this eparchy are Elis, Pylos and Olympia—the scene of the Olympian games, where recent excavation has brought to light many interesting relics of antiquity.

Messenia.

The nomarchy of Messenia contains about 1260 square miles, and 155,800 inhabitants, in the eparchies of Olympia, Triphylia, Pylia, Messenè, and Kalainai.

The eparchy of Olympia (29,000) contains the towns of Andritsaina (7800), Agoulinitsa, Krestena, Zacha, &c.

The eparchy of Triphylia (35,500) contains Kyparissia (6000), a new town of rising importance; Philiatra (7000), formerly Erana; Gargalianoi, Ligoudista, &c. The greater part of the western coast is exceedingly fertile, producing large crops of olives, currants, &c.

The eparchy of Pylia (25,500) contains the seaports of Pylos (Navarino, 4500), with its harbour, sheltered by the island of Sphakteria, and capable of holding a thousand ships at a time; Methonè (Modon, 4000), Koron (4000), on the Messenian Gulf; Petalidi, on the site of ancient Koronè; and Mainaki. In addition to Sphakteria, the Oinussai group of islands, and Venetikon, south of Cape Akritas (Gallo), belong to the same eparchy.

The eparchy of Messenè (35,000) contains Nesion (Nisi, ancient Limnai); Mavrommati, on

the site of ancient Messenè; Garantsa, Polianè, Meligala, and Diavolitsi.

The eparchy of Kalamai (29,700), between the Pamisos and Mount Taÿgetos, contains the manufacturing town of Kalamai, or Kalamata (11,600), the emporium of a fertile plain, connected with Nesion by a good road; Aslanaga, Sitsova, Kameria (Thouria, called by Homer Antheia); Mikremana and Amphara.

Lakonia.

The nomarchy of Lakonia contains about 1640 square miles and 121,000 inhabitants, distributed over four eparchies—Lakedaimonia, Oitylos, Gytheion, and Epidavros-Limera.

The eparchy of Lakedaimonia (52,500) includes the plain of Sparta, the valley of the Evrotas, and the two promontories ending in Capes Tainaron (Matapan) and Malea. The chief town is New Sparta (Nea Spartè, 12,000), on the right bank of the Evrotas, handsomely built out of the ruins of ancient Sparta. Mistra, a few miles west of New Sparta, was built by the Franks out of the same quarry in the thirteenth century, and had at one time a population of 25,000; but it was devastated by the Egyptians in 1825. Other towns in



- LANCELOT -

DOORWAY AT KALAMATA.

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Lakedaimonia are Georgitsa and Kastania, on the northern slopes of the Taÿgetos, Vainvakon, Arachova (ancient Karyai), Hagios Ioannes, Anavrytè, Levetova, Sklavokorion, on the site of the ancient Amyklai, and Helos (Douralè) near the mouth of the Evrotas, from whence in ancient times the Spartans brought the first "Helots" as slaves.

The eparchy of Oitylos (30,000) includes western Maina (the eastern coast of the Gulf of Messenè), and contains the towns of Areopolis, Oitylos, or Vitylon, Pyrgos, Selitsa, Kardamylè, &c.

The eparchy of Gytheion (16,000), or eastern Maina, contains Gytheion (4000), from whence is shipped a part of the produce of the district of Sparta, with which it is connected by a good road; Panitsa, Lagia, Polyaravos, &c.

The eparchy of Epidavros-Limera (22,000) includes the town of Epidavros-Limera (Monemvasia, 4000), strongly built on a small island, which is connected with the mainland by a bridge, and at one time famous for its vine-culture, and its brands of malmsey and malvoisie (from the corrupted name of Malvasia); Boiai, Kremastè, Malaoi, &c.

Arkadia.

The nomarchy of Arkadia, occupying the centre

of the Peloponnesos, contains about 1600 square miles and 149,000 inhabitants, distributed over the eparchies of Mantinea, Gortynia, Megalepolis, and Kynouria.

The eparchy of Mantinea (51,500) lies to the west of the Artemision and Parthenion mountains. The chief town is Tripolis (14,000), so called because it was built between the sites of the three more ancient cities of Mantinea, Tegea, and Pallantion. Tripolis is a trading and manufacturing town, and is connected by a good road with Argos and Nauplia. Other towns are Levidion, Tsipiana, Isari, Kandila, Vlachokerasia, &c.; and the most notable ruins, in addition to those of the three cities above named, are at the sites of Orchomenos and Helisson.

The eparchy of Gortynia (46,000), between Eleia and Mantinea, south of the chain of Erymanthos, contains the towns of Demetsana (5600), noted for its Greek schools and library previous to the War of Independence; Karytaina, occupying a strong natural position; Stemnitsa, in a mountainous district, the inhabitants of which are mostly engaged in copper-mining; Zatsouna, Lankadia, Bytina, Valtesinikon, Vervitsa, &c.

The eparchy of Megalepolis (20,000) contains Megalepolis, also called Sinanon (5000), Vronthé, &c.

The eparchy of Kynouria, or Tsakonia (31,500), includes the towns of Leonidion, a trading centre near the shore of the Argolic Gulf; Prastos, in the immediate neighbourhood; Astros, Hagios Petros, Kastri, Hagios Ioannes, Vervaina; and the sites of Pyramia, Eva, Thyrea, &c. Many of the inhabitants of Kynouria, especially in Leonidion and the neighbourhood, speak a dialect (Tsakonian) in which the characteristics of the old Doric are plainly recognized.

Euboia.

The nomarchy of Euboia contains about 1600 square miles, and 95,000 inhabitants, in the eparchies of Karystia, Chalkis, Xerochorion, and Skopelos (with the rest of the northern Sporades).

The eparchy of Karystia (39,000), in the south of Euboia, has for its chief town Kymè (5500), near the Cape of Kymè, in a district producing coal, and a dark species of wine. Karystos (7300) is an ancient town on the slopes of Mount Ocha (St. Elias). Other minor places are Alivari and Avlonari. The island of Skyros, with the towns of Skyros (3000) and Petalia, is included in this eparchy.

The eparchy of Chalkis (33,000) has for its chief town Chalkis (12,000), so called from the

copper found in its neighbourhood. The place was altered or added to by its Mahomedan occupiers, and still retains some of the features of a Turkish town, as well as a few Mahomedan residents. It has two strong forts, and is a trading town of some importance. Other towns are Limnè (the ancient Aigai, 3300), Stenè, Eretria or Nea Psara, Hagia Anna, and Hagia Sophia.

The eparchy of Xerochorion (12,000), in the north-west of the island, was formerly called Hestiaotis, from the town of Histiaia (Oreos) on the north coast. The chief town is Xerochorion (6000), a short distance to the east. Aidipsos, opposite to the coast of Lokris, is famous for its warm springs. The sites of the ancient towns of Dion and Athenai are in the peninsula of Lithada, opposite to the mouth of the Maliac Gulf.

The eparchy of Skopelos (10,000) includes the islands of Skopelos (5000), which exports wine and fruits of various kinds ; Skiathos (3000), and Heliodromia (400), the first two of these having towns of the same names. The eastern islands of this group are uninhabited.

The Kyklades.

The nomarchy of the Kyklades contains about

1000 square miles, and 135,000 inhabitants. The group is sometimes called Dodekanesos — the twelve principal islands being Andros, Tenos, Mykonos, Delos, Naxos, Paros, Siphnos, Seriphos, Kythnos, Keos, Gyaros and Syros. The nomarchy, however, includes also the remaining islands of the *Ægean*, the chief of which are Melos, Kimolos, Sikinos, Ios, Amorgos and Thera (Santorini). The whole group is rocky, and the southern islands are mostly barren and unprofitable. But the mineral wealth of the Kyklades as a whole is very great, and they have many serviceable harbours; whilst some of them enjoy an excellent climate, and are here and there exceptionally fertile. The eparchies are named after Syros, Andros, Tenos, Naxos, Melos, Thera, and Keos.

The eparchy of Syros (with Mykonos, Delos, Rheneia, and Gyaros, 31,000), has for its chief town Hermoupolis (21,500), one of the busiest shipping ports, commercial depots, and manufacturing towns in the kingdom. It contains many public and private schools, gymnasia, a hospital, theatre, churches, &c., and has commercial relations with most parts of Europe. Mykonos (4500), has for its chief town Mykonos. Delos, once held sacred as the birthplace of Apollo and Artemis, is

now a quarantine station. It is uninhabited, as also are Rheneia and Gyaros.

The eparchy of Andros (20,500), includes no other island. Its towns are Andros (9800), which has a good harbour, Lamara, Mesaria, Gavrion, Korthion, &c.

The eparchy of Tenos (12,500), includes no other island. The chief towns are Tenos (4200), celebrated for a species of national festival held there twice in each year; Pyrgos, in the neighbourhood of which are white and coloured marble quarries; Komè, Tripotamos, and Peraia.

The eparchy of Naxos (with Paros, Antiparos, and minor islands, 22,300) is the most famous division of the Kyklades group, and its noted for its beauty, its climate, its excellent marbles, and good wine. Its chief towns are Naxos (2200) which has a mediæval fortress, and two large monasteries, with a community of about 300 Roman Catholics; Aperianthos, Philotion, Komiakè, Tripodes, Tragaia, &c. on the island of Naxos; Paros (2800), Naousa, and Leukai (Lefkai), on the island of Paros. On Antiparos is a fine stalactite cave, about 600 feet long.

The eparchy of Melos (with Siphnos, Kimolos, Sikinos, and Pholegandros, 13,000) includes the towns of Melos (3500) with a good harbour, Try-

petè, Trissavalos, and Adamas ; Siphnos (5700) noted for its pottery ; Apollonia, Artemon, and Exampela ; Sikinos (900), and Kimolos (1300). The volcanic island of Melos produces wine, fruits, salt, alum, brimstone, millstones, &c., and its inhabitants are famous for their seagoing qualities. Several islands of this eparchy have warm or mineral springs. The soil of Siphnos is very fertile ; and in old times its rocks yielded gold and silver, which might still be found there in sufficient quantities to repay the cost of working.

The eparchy of Thera (with Therasia, Amorgo, Ios, and Anaphè, 20,000) has for its chief towns Thera (4000), Kontochori, Gonia, and Ios. The first island is also called Santorini, from Santa Eirenè, a martyr of the fourth century. It is a volcanic island, crescent-shaped, and embraces a small group of rocks raised from the sea by volcanic action, namely, Kaÿmenè, New Kaÿmenè, Little Kaÿmenè, Georgios, and Aphroëssa. The inhabitants of Thera cultivate some excellent varieties of grapes, and export a considerable quantity of wine.

The eparchy of Keos, or Kea (with Kythnos and Sériphos, 10,200) includes the towns of Keos (4300) the birthplace of Simonides, Kythnos (1500), much frequented for its mineral waters, with its

seaport Hagia Eirenè, Dryopis (1400), and Seriphos (3000).

Kerkyra (Corfu).

The nomarchy of Kerkyra contains about 440 square miles and 106,000 inhabitants. Its eparchesies are Kerkyra, Mesè, Oros, Paxoi, and Leukas (Lefkas).

The eparchy of Kerkyra or Korphoi (Corcyra, Corfu) occupies the central portion of the island, having for its chief town the large and fortified seaport of Corfu (25,000) with theological and other schools, a hospital, university, bank, asylum, churches, and many fine public and private buildings. It has four suburbs, Mandoukion (4000), Garitsa (1800), Hagios Rhokos (800), and Ancmomylos (800). Corfu has a large trade in oil and general merchandise, and is a seaport and postal and telegraph station intermediary between Greece and western Europe. Other towns are Xynarades and Potamos.

The eparchy of Mesè (24,300), chief town Gastouri, occupies the south of the island of Kerkyra.

The eparchy of Oros (27,000) occupies the north of Kerkyra. The principal towns are Skriperon, Krasades, and the ancient Kassiopè. To this eparchy belongs a small group on the

north-west, including Othonoi (1000), and Erikousa (600), the inhabitants of which are chiefly fishermen.

The eparchy of Paxoi (Paxos, Antipaxos, and other small islands, 5000) has for its chief town Gaïos, with a large and safe harbour.

The eparchy of Leukas (Hagia Mavra or Santa Maura; 23,000), consists chiefly of the volcanic island of the same name, which was probably once a promontory of Akarnania. Its principal town is Leukas (6500), a seaport in the north; other towns being Karya (3600), Sphakiotai (1900), Hagios Petros and Stavros. The islands of Taphos, Kalamos, Kastros, and others, lie between the south of Leukas and the mainland.

Kephallenia (Cephalonia).

The nomarchy of Kephallenia contains 400 square miles and 81,500 inhabitants. It is divided into the eparchies of Kranaia, Samè, Palè, and Ithaka.

The eparchy of Kranaia (34,000) includes the towns of Kranioi (Argostolion, 8,000), a seaport on the gulf of the same name, with an excellent harbour; and Deilinata (3500).

The eparchy of Palè (17,000) occupies the western division of the island. The chief town is

Lexourion (6200), the site of the ancient Palè, on the western shore of the Gulf of Kranioi.

The eparchy of Samè (18,000) occupies the east of Kephallenia, and includes Samè, Ainos, and Pronoi.

The eparchy of Ithaka (with smaller islands, 12,500) includes the chief town of Bathy (5000), near the site of the ancient Ithaka, now Thiaki, which has a fine harbour. Other towns are Exogè, Perachorion, Kionion, and Anogè, near which is the fountain of Arethousa.

Most of the islands of this eparchy produce olives, currants, and wine, whilst Kephallenia grows several kinds of grain, in considerable abundance.

Zakynthos (Zante).

The nomarchy of Zakynthos contains about 140 square miles and 44,500 inhabitants, and is an eparchy in itself. The chief towns are Zante (18,600), which has good streets and public buildings, a library, hospital, asylums, gymnasia, &c.; Pegadaki, and Katastari.

The bordering provinces of Turkey, from which, as a result of the Treaty of Berlin, Greece acquires a new accession of territory, are Epeiros and Thessaly,

which together contain about the same number of square miles as Sterea Hellas and the Peloponnesos, with less than four-fifths of the population.

Epeiros (Epirus) covers about 7000 square miles, and has 450,000 inhabitants. The chief town is Ioannina or Janina (30,000), on the western bank of the lake of that name, occupying a lofty site, and serving as the emporium of a wide district. It is famous for its ancient Hellenic associations, its traditions of culture and learning, its educational standing even under Turkish rule, and its commercial activity. The district of Ioannina is estimated to contain 105,000 Christians, nearly all of whom belong to the Greek communion, 4500 Mahomedans, and 2300 Jews.

Preveza (10,000), a fortified town at the entrance to the Gulf of Arta, the principal seaport of Epeiros, contains less than 1000 Mahomedans. Arta, or Amvrakia (10,000) is the centre of the wide and fertile plain of the Arachthus. The district of Arta includes 50,000 inhabitants, whereof 47,000 are Greek Christians. Other important towns in Epeiros are Argyrokastron (10,000), Delvinon (6000), Metzovo (8,000), Premeti, Bouthroton, Paramythia, Margariti, Parga, and Soulion.

Though extremely mountainous as a rule, Epeiros is fertile in parts, and yields large quanti-

ties of grain, wine, oil, lemons, olives, and other fruits ; and some of this produce is exported by way of Ioannina and Preveza, and by the smaller ports of Hagia Saranta, Salachora, and Sagiada.

Thessaly contains about 9000 square miles, and 350,000 inhabitants. Its chief town is Lárissa. (30,000), on the right bank of the Peneios (Salamvrias), in the midst of a very large, elevated, and fertile plain. The streets are badly built, and neglected ; and the town will not bear comparison with Ioannina, either for its material or for its intellectual condition. Other towns in Thessaly are Trikkala (18,000), on the Letharion, a tributary of the Peneios ; Tyrnavos (7000)—the bulk of the population in both these places being Greek Christians ; Volos (Pagasai), a partly fortified seaport on the Gulf of Volos, Elasson, Pharsalos, Tsaritsana, Agyia, Phanari, Karditsa, Domokon, Armyros, near the Gulf of Volos, and twenty-four places of some importance on the slopes of Mount Pelion, including Zagora, Makrynitsa, Drakia, and Meliai.

Thessaly is more fertile, being much less mountainous, than Epeiros. Its products include grain, wine, olives and many other fruits, flax, and wool.



CHAPTER IV.

RACE, CHARACTER, AND LANGUAGE.

THE earlier inhabitants of Greece, before their conquest by the Romans, called themselves Hellenes. The original Hellas, according to the geographer Dikaiarchos, was a town in Thessaly, a few miles south of Pharsalos, and it was so named from its founder Hellen, son of Deukalion. Hellen's children, Aiolos and Doros, and his grandchildren, Achaios and Ion, were the ancestors of the Aiolians, Dorians, Achaians, and Ionians. An alternative myth directs us to the grove of Dodona, near the modern city of Ioannina, where the Selloi, or Helloi, presided over the most ancient of the oracles.

In other words, the geographers, relying on tradition or induction, saw the origin of the name and

race in these two spots, one in the heart of Thessaly, and one in the heart of Epeiros.

Herodotus names the Pelasgians and the Hellenes as ancestors of the Ionians and Dorians respectively. Philology, which enables us to go behind the most ancient authority, shows us that the Pelasgians were a branch of the Indo-Teutonic family, and gives ground for the belief that the Hellenes, another and more warlike branch of the same family, followed the Pelasgians after a certain interval, and drove them towards the west, very much as the Saxons and Angles drove the Celts in Britain.

The angle of land in which these earlier Aryans settled down, and over which they spread, consists of the primary and secondary peninsulas of Greece, cut off from the continent of Europe at about the fortieth parallel of north latitude. The Pelasgians, indeed, were also settled further north, and along the shore of the Adriatic ; but this section of the race remained outside of the geographical denomination of Hellas, even when the latter included (as Strabo made it include) the country of Makedonia beyond the Strymonic Gulf. These northern Pelasgians were amongst the ancestors of the modern Albanians, whose tongue has many elements in common with the Greek of to-day.

The Hellenes themselves used the name of Hellas to distinguish any and every locality where they formed a settlement, whether by conquest or by colonization. Hellas was in the Archipelago, in Asian Smyrna, in African Kyrene, in the Italian and Sicilian colonies. The Romans adopted the same idea when they gave the name of *Magna Græcia*, not to a district in Southern Italy, but to the Greek cities on the Tarentine Gulf, on the western coast of the peninsula, and in Sicily.

Amongst the earliest of these settlers in Italy were, in all likelihood, families of a tribe of *Graikoi*, or *Græci*, from the west of Epeiros, whose appellation was extended by the Romans to the whole nation of the Pelasgian-Hellenes, eventually displacing the older term. But it is hardly necessary to say that no single name could be applied to the inhabitants of the country which we now call Greece with more comprehensive and general accuracy than that of Hellenes. No doubt the modern Greeks are a highly composite race, as are the inhabitants of the strongest nations which have played a prominent part in history; but their claim to the title of Hellenes is scarcely in any respect inferior to our own title to the name of Englishmen. The intermixture of the Hellenic race is, in fact, a reasonable cause of pride, inas-

much as its progress reveals at every step the unvarying predominance of its best and most enduring characteristics.

From the very dawn of their history, when the Pelasgians and Hellenes had spread themselves over the greater part of the western peninsula of the Hæmus, the superior race did more than simply hold the conquered land in slavery. They raised those whom they subjected, and civilized their victims as they afterwards civilized their conquerors. The Makedonian invasions resulted not so much in a mixture of races as in the more complete interfusion of Hellenic blood; for Makedonia was already in the ethnographical Hellas. Alexander and his warriors were of the same race and tongue as the Athenians, the Achaians, the Thebans, whom they overcame. Up to this time, at all events, there was no dilution of the pure Hellenic blood, except such as may have been brought about by the Hellenization and adoption of the races conquered by Hellenes.

The Roman conquests of Greece began in the year 197 B.C.; and now, during many generations, hundreds of wealthy municipalities were destroyed, thousands of Hellenes sought refuge in other countries, carrying their civilization wherever they went, and Greece itself was subjected to a

great demoralization. But even this shock, vehement as it was, did not suffice to paralyze the active principles of Hellenism. The Romans were apt scholars, and, if they ruled the Greeks with the sword, in spirit they sat at their feet. They pressed northwards and westwards, conquering and to conquer; but still, as they extended their dominion over Makedonia, Mœsia, and Thrace, they found themselves continually hemmed in by overwhelming currents of Hellenism, until at length there was established a Greek, not a Latin empire on the shores of the Bosphorus.

It was one of the grandest feats of the Hellenic evolution. This triumph of the conquered, this defeat of the conqueror on the very heyday of his victory, is a fact of the utmost importance to humanity at large, and its effects have been, if anything, underestimated by modern historians. The Byzantine empire in the Middle Ages was hardly such a mass of corruption, when compared with the rest of Europe, as many western writers have described it. A candid inquiry and comparison would probably show us that our pictures have been overdrawn and too highly coloured in this respect; and an historian may yet arise who will find it possible to vindicate Byzantium against the severest strictures of his predecessors. At any rate the Greek-Latin

empire of the East did much to give us the renaissance of art, learning, science, and civilization ; and it was the persistence of the Hellenic spirit which gave to Byzantinism nearly all its dynamic force.

Meanwhile, after the land of Greece had been devastated by long-protracted struggles, many of its fortified places being destroyed, and the warlike vigour of its citizens being crushed, hordes of Slavonians from the north descended upon it and made it their prey. Rarely has a victorious race and a foreign domination left a fainter impression upon a subjected country than the Slavs have left in Greece. It has been assumed by one or two writers, though with the very slightest historical evidence to support the theory, that the Greeks were practically exterminated by their Slavonian invaders. The testimony which ethnology regards as most conclusive tells all the other way. Even if the contention were a sound one, the fact would be of slight importance as affecting the position of Greece in Europe ; but it is not so. No doubt some few elements of Slavonic speech have held their own, side by side with the Greek, as proved especially by geographical names, and in certain localities. But it is impossible to suppose that the Slavonians were for any lengthened

period the exclusive occupants of the greater portion of the country. One of the strongest reasons for rejecting such a belief is that a vast number of villages, towns, rivers, and mountains, bear to this day alternative names, whereof one is almost invariably Greek ; and in many instances we even meet with Greek names not belonging to the classical age, which must have had their origin in mediæval times. The Greeks of the existing kingdom are direct heirs of the speech, the land, the customs, the traditions and glories, of the purest Hellenes of the classical age. If their ancestors, contemporaries of Perikles and Demosthenes, or of the Slavonian invaders of Greece, were degraded and oppressed, so also were the Britons under the Saxons of England, and the Saxons under the Normans. Their Hellenism, moreover, would not vanish even if they had not the blood of Amphiktyonic or Achaian leaguers in their veins. The great thing to be noted is that they are Hellenic speakers and thinkers on Hellenic soil. And it must not be forgotten that the humblest of their ancestors, however much they may have suffered as helots or slaves, were frequently inferior to the typical Hellenic aristocracy by the fortune of war alone. To take a single instance ; the Messenian captives who peopled the slopes of Taygetos, and

whose direct descendants are thought by some to have clung to the Maina to this day, may well have been as brave, as refined, as worthy to be the ancestors of a great race, as their more successful neighbours the Lakonians.

On the strength of these considerations we shall be prepared to find that the national characteristics of the modern Greeks are in many respects, physical as well as moral, identical with those of the ancients, as we are able to glean them from the literary and artistic records of the classical age. And this, in fact, is what observation shows us to be the case, and what the majority of travellers in Greece unite to affirm.

The first trace of resemblance is found in their clothing. "The national costume is more and more rarely seen in Athens; but in the small towns a large proportion of the inhabitants have faithfully preserved the old traditions."—(*D'Estournelles de Constant*).¹ On holidays especially the

¹ It may not be out of place to mention that the characteristic dress of the modern Greeks appears to be, in the main, a simple modification of the dress of the ancient hoplite. It is composed of an inner and an outer jacket, both richly embroidered, in the case of wealthy families with elaborate gold and silver patterns. Even amongst the poorest the patterns are usually faithful reproductions of ancient scrolls and ecclesiastical decorations. The inner jacket, or fustanella, is extended downwards towards the knees, in many folds, generally of white calico. The upper and lower por-





A LADY AT LAMIA (*from a Photograph*).

Greek citizens and their families, in districts where ancient fashions and tastes for finery are more naturally retained than in the capital, make their appearance in elaborate and costly garments, which frequently represent a considerable portion of their wealth.

This splendour in dress, due in some degree to personal vanity and love of display, is encouraged by the bright and equable climate, which offers every inducement to the leading of an open-air life. The same amongst other causes has tended to conserve a type of physical beauty which springs from the ingrafting of excellent original stocks. The observer last quoted speaks of the men whom he saw in Achaia and Arkadia as beautiful in every sense of the word—"beautiful as the models of Praxiteles and Phidias must have been." Their

tions of this tunic are sometimes worn separately, as two garments ; but with the poorer classes it is frequently a single robe, and may be regarded as the modernized form of the chiton. The hoplite had the lower portion of the chiton lined with leather, or strips of some other stout material, as a protection for the groin ; and the ample folds of the fustanella preserve this fashion. The outer jacket, with its stiff embroidery, corresponds to the *thorax*, and no great stretch of imagination is required to see the ancient *perikne-mides* in the leggings of to-day. The striking character of this analogy may be appreciated by comparing any accurate picture of the modern Greek costumes with the illustrations on pp. 135, 712, and 854, of Dr. Smith's Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities (1875).

eyes, he says, are large, and black as jet ; their eye-lashes long and silky, imparting a melancholy aspect to the face. Their teeth are white and regular, their profile delicate and straight, their skin pale and without colour, their figure shapely and upright, and their bearing graceful and dignified. It is the type of twenty centuries ago. The pure Greek, as Professor Mahaffy says, "was often fair in colour, and of very regular and beautiful features. He grew up slower than his neighbours, and so his education was more deliberate, his vigour more lasting, and his old age more protracted than theirs. Even now the traveller in Greece is surprised by the exceeding fairness and beauty of the people, and by the number of fine old men whom he meets. The excellent climate of the country, along with very temperate habits, have made the Greeks a very healthy race."

The physical types vary in different parts of the country, as would be expected in so composite a nation. According to Mr. Strong, the most classical forms are found in the mountainous districts of the continent and the Peloponnesos. Most witnesses agree that the female type is, as a rule, inferior to the male, whilst its beauty fades at an earlier age.

The enviable conditions of life in Greece are

favourable to health as well as to beauty ; and their good effect is displayed in the mind as in the body. The intellectual vigour and aptitude of the Greeks are proverbial. They are, perhaps, as quick at apprehension, as sharp in perception, as ready to draw a comparison and accept an inference, as the scholars whom Sokrates kept on the alert with his running fire of questions. Like their ancestors, they are ratiocinative, they seek instruction and love discussion, they cling to the life of cities, to clubs, councils, and politics, to the quest of gain and power.

Physical rather than moral beauty attracted the Hellenes of old ; they loved human society, revered bodily excellence, whether of strength or of form, studied symmetry and simplicity. Truth was less to them than art, endurance more difficult than intrigue. Their ambition was often overweening, but their competitions were always keen. "Ever to excel, and to be superior to others," is a motto preserved by one of their poets ; and their love of excellence was made to justify duplicity and dissimulation, and, often enough, cruelty. Many of these typical qualities, the good and the bad together, are conspicuous in the Greeks of to-day.

The passion for education, for criticism and discussion, is perhaps the strongest of all the mental

characteristics which distinguish the Greek race ; and it is at the same time one of the most valuable. It inclines them to the arts of peace rather than of war ; it gives them a self-restraint which has more than once stood them in good stead since the establishment of the existing kingdom. Greece has had sundry temptations within the past fifty years to try the fortune of war ; she has even wished and prepared for it ; but on almost every occasion her people have been held back by moral rather than physical control. They have shown themselves to be capable of "listening to reason ;" and no better illustration of this fact could be had than was afforded by the scrupulous and resolute manner in which, during the year 1870, they suddenly and for ever repudiated the laxity which had, up to that year, tolerated the existence of brigandage.

The modern Greek language differs from the classical form in a few important particulars ; but the difference at this moment is not so great as in the case of several other European tongues. It is far less notable, for instance, than the change from the language of Cæsar to the Italian of the nineteenth century, or than the change which has turned the earliest English speech into the English of to-day. Moreover, there is a decided and

active tendency amongst the Greeks to recast their language in the ancient mould. They have reasons for this which scarcely find a counterpart in the minds of Italians or Englishmen ; and the comparative poverty of their modern literary annals enables them to effect a transition which would be impracticable for most other nations.

The better educated Greeks, and especially the higher ecclesiastics, had carefully preserved a purer form, both written and spoken, than those which long served as the vernacular of Greek-speaking countries. The revival now taking place may, perhaps, not do much more than establish the purest form of the actual printed language of Greece as the colloquial and familiar tongue, wherever Greek is spoken or written ; but, if it does as much as this, it will have afforded a remarkable proof of the vitality of this venerable Aryan stock.

The following are some of the principal ways in which the modification of the older Greek has been effected. (1.) By the common law of the Indo-Teutonic languages, whereby it has grown more analytical in character ; as in the use of prepositions with the accusative to express various significations of the old genitive and dative case-endings, and in the great increase of periphrastic

verbal forms. (2.) By a peculiar return to, or survival of, certain archaic forms, which had been abandoned in classical Greek prose ; as *eine* for *esti*, *emena* for *eme*, *zetaei* for *zetei*. (3.) By a constant tendency to clip words and to contract phrases ; as *donti*, *mati*, *me* for *meta*, *na* for *ina*, *tha* (probably) for *thelo na*, and the familiar *na's'po* for *na sas cipo*. (4.) By the oblivion of many of the classical distinctions of speech, as in the use of a single form of the aorist, where two were formerly in use. (5.) By the introduction of words from other languages (sometimes but not always necessary) ; as *gantia* (gloves), *kathes* (coffee), *spiti* (house). (6.) By the great increase of diminutives, patronymics, &c., natural in a tongue which has for so long a time been colloquial rather than classical, and inherited from mouth to mouth rather than transmitted by universities and printing-presses.





CHAPTER V.

MODERN HISTORY.

SOMETHING more than a knowledge of the contemporary history of a country is necessary before we can rightly understand its constitution and political life. This is especially so in the case of modern Greece, which presents many peculiar features in its government and popular institutions, and which is an almost unique example of a people springing from comparative slavery to organized and orderly national existence. The scope of the present work, however, will not admit more than an outline of the events which have happened in Greece, and to the Greek race.

Whilst the Peloponnesos, and the continent as far north as Thessaly and Epeiros, were subject to the dissolution and chaos of the mediæval ages, the Eastern Empire was being built up by Constantine and his successors on the shores of the Bosphorus. In A.D. 395 the bond which had

united Rome and Byzantium was finally broken. Henceforth the perfervid genius of the Greeks, which had accepted and Hellenized the oriental faith of the disciples of Christ, began to make Constantinople a centre of Christian worship and influence, and, coincidentally, a focus of Hellenism and a rallying-point for the scattered Greek race. Simultaneously with the first incursions of the Slavonians into the cradle-land of the earlier Hellenes and Pelasgians, the church of Saint Sophia was dedicated in the city of Constantine. Two centuries later, the Bulgarians and the Saracens were vainly hurling themselves against the impregnable walls. The latter had already possessed themselves of the Greek colonies in Africa. In the ninth century the empire lost Dalmatia, Krete, and the cities of Sicily and Italy ; in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, a large portion of Asia Minor and the island of Cyprus. Some of these possessions it subsequently regained ; but the advancing tide of Asiatics was not to be resisted. The crusades, waged with doubtful or varying success by the nations of western Europe, did not avail to stop the incursions ; and eventually the Ottoman Turks laid the foundation of a new empire, first in Asia, and subsequently on the opposite shore of the Bosphorus.

Meanwhile the Greeks of the Byzantine Empire had become a vortex whereto converged the many violent currents of aggression by which the whole world was at this epoch overwhelmed. Neither semi-civilized nor barbarous nations were unconcerned in the general inundation of greed and cruelty; but the Greek Empire, and especially the strip of Greek coast from Epeiros to Thrace, was a line of greatest pressure upon which the opposing floods of invasion clashed and spent their fury. From Asia the Saracens, the Ottoman, and other Mahomedan hordes; from the north, myriads of Russians, Bulgarians, Illyrians, Hungarians; from the west, the Franks of Flanders, Normandy, Champagne, swarms of Venetians and Genoese, all found their quarry amongst the devoted Greeks. The crusaders themselves took Constantinople at the beginning of the thirteenth century, and set a Count of Flanders on the throne of the Byzantine emperors. The vast dominion which, five or six centuries after Christ, extended from the Adriatic and the Danube, round the whole coast of the eastern Mediterranean, through Asia and Africa as far as the Egyptian Pentapolis, had been gradually broken up into a hundred fragments. True, a basis of recovery was established by Theodore Laskaris at Nikæa; and the fifth of that dynasty,

Michael Palaiologos, returned to reign at Constantinople. But the glory had departed from the empire of the east, which would probably have collapsed from its internal weakness, and from the unscrupulous competition for its throne, even if its enemies without had spared it. Thus, in the last twenty-four years before the crusaders gave the crown to Count Baldwin of Flanders, six emperors sat on the throne of Constantine, and every one of them was murdered or deposed by his successor. During the course of the thirteenth century, scores of kings, princes, despots, dukes, counts, viscounts, and petty republics, divided the Byzantine Empire, which thenceforth became an easy prey to the Turks.

In 1362 the Sultan Amurath acquired Adrianople for his capital; in 1396 Bayazet repulsed the Hungarians under Sigismond. Then the Mahomedans set themselves to humble the proud city on the Bosphorus, and so complete the series of victories which had already secured for them the whole coast of the Levant. In 1401 a pasha had been appointed to represent his master at Athens, and fifty-two years later—about the time of the long Anglo-French wars and the Wars of the Roses, and when the invention of printing was preparing the way for an incredible advance of civilization in

western Europe—Mahomet II. took Constantinople by storm.

It was a critical time, not only for the Greeks but for all Europe. The danger of the Turkish aggression was doubtless perceived by many, even amongst the western and northern nations ; but it was not realized as thoroughly as it might have been. Civilization would have been saved a great deal if the Powers of Europe had united in time against the common foe, or if the crusades had been better directed and more persistently followed up. The Byzantine Empire was manifestly not strong enough to close the gates of the continent against the Ottoman armies ; and it would have been well for Christendom if a European concert had existed at that juncture, willing and able to sweep back the enemies of civilization. The need was great, and the appeal was duly made. In the year 1400 the Emperor Manuel earnestly solicited the aid of the western monarchs. After Constantinople had resisted one siege, John Palaiologos himself visited Rome and other cities, vainly entreating for assistance. On both occasions the Papacy was distracted by the seventy years' schism ; on the last occasion France and England were exhausted by war and civil discords. Pope Nicholas V. did, however, propose a crusade

against the Turks, about the year 1450, as also did Paul II. in 1464, and Sixtus IV. in 1471; but the calls were made to little or no purpose. The Greeks were abandoned to their fate, so far as western Europe was concerned; and this fact must be remembered, in conjunction with the virtual ruin of the Byzantine Empire by crusaders in 1204, as partly accounting for the long subjection of the race to their Mahomedan conquerors, and as bearing upon the relations of the modern kingdom of Greece to the rest of Europe.

Meanwhile the tide of Ottoman conquest was sweeping round the coasts of Makedonia and Thessaly into the cradle of the Hellenic nation. The later dukes of Athens had not disdained to appeal from their rivals and their subjects to the sultans at Adrianople; and it was as the natural consequence of this infatuated conduct that Mahomet II. added the province of Attika to his dominions in 1456. Four years later he put an end to the despotates of the Peloponnesos. Mytilene, Argos, Euboea, Zante, Kephallenia, and the remaining Venetian possessions in Greece, rapidly fell into the hands of Mahomet and his successors; but it was not until 1614 that the stubborn inhabitants of Maina were compelled to pay haratch to the sultans, whilst their com-

plete subjugation was delayed for another half-century. Crete fell in 1669, after a siege of twenty-four years, and the slaughter of 200,000 men. A last Turko-Venetian war followed, in the course of which the Christians captured Athens, after laying the Parthenon in ruins ; but the interruption of Ottoman supremacy was short and insignificant.

The character of this supremacy, and the means by which it was maintained, are known by its results. "When Mohammed II.," says Mr. Finlay, "annexed the Peloponnesus and Attica to the Othoman empire, he deliberately exterminated all remains of the existing aristocracy, both Frank nobles and Greek archonts, and introduced in their place a Turkish aristocracy, as far as such a class existed in his dominions. The ordinary system of the Othoman administration was immediately applied to the greater part of Greece, and it was poverty, and not valour, which exempted a few mountainous districts from its application."

It has been maintained that the Greeks of Greece in many instances welcomed the rule of the sultans as a relief after the misgovernment of the Frank and Venetian conquerors ; and in one sense they had reason for so doing. The tender mercies of the Turks were due to the fact of their looking

upon their Christian subjects as payers of tribute, whether in money or in person. So long as haratch was forthcoming, and children for the harems and the army, the Ottoman conquerors looked with indifference upon the practice of the Christian religion, and frequently left the Greeks, especially in the rural districts, more free from molestation than the Venetians had done. The sultans, however, had adopted a sort of feudal system, which they had found established in the Seljukian empire of Asia Minor. Estates in the conquered country were given to favoured Mussulmans, who were afterwards called timariots ; and the latter exacted labour from the natives of the country, using more or less oppressive measures in order to enforce it. The whole of Greece was divided into six sandjaks (Morea, Negrepont, Thessaly, Janina, Epakto, and Karlili), which comprised over sixteen hundred timars ; and thus it is not probable that many of the unhappy people escaped from the grinding tyranny of either timariots or haratch collectors. Whatever may have been the cruelties of Franks and Venetians—and they were often terrible enough—the iron rule of the Turk was to eat into their very souls. “Byzantine ceremony and orthodox formality,” says Mr. Finlay, after referring to the cruelties of

the previous dominations, "had already effaced the stronger traits of individual character, and extinguished genius ; Othoman oppression now made an effort to extirpate the innate feelings of humanity. Parents gave their sons to be janissaries, and their daughters to be odalisques."

The Turkish domination would have weighed still more heavily upon the Greeks, and would have done more to root them out from the subjected empire, if Mahomet and his successors had not found it necessary to govern their European dominions by the aid of Greek intermediaries. They recognized the mental superiority of their victims, and at the same time disdained to learn their language ; so that they had no alternative but to rule them by representatives. Mahomet was fortunate in meeting with the distinguished scholar and admirable organizer Georgios Gennadios, whom he confirmed in the office of Patriarch ; and the choice was yet more fortunate for the Greeks of that and all succeeding ages. Gennadios practically instituted a system which saved his countrymen from destruction, which preserved them as a nation within a nation, and made their subjection tolerable. The sultans regarded the patriarch, bishops, and priests, as being responsible for the Greeks in general. In every instance of repression the Christian hierarchy

were the first to pay the penalty in their own persons ; but in quiet times, and so long as the imposts were paid, the Greeks were comparatively safe. The bishops were the political as well as the ecclesiastical overseers of their dioceses ; they were able to perpetuate the language as well as the religion of their people ; they not only regulated their worship but decided their disputes.

Thus the Greeks endured. They never disappeared as a nation, and the Greek spirit was never extinct. No doubt the code of Justinian, and still more the laws of Lykurgus, were partly forgotten. The old municipalities, organic institutions, judicial and political traditions, had left few distinct traces in the daily life of the Greeks in Greece ; but the seeds of resurrection were buried with this wasted harvest in its mother-soil. For three long centuries the representatives of the Hellenes were oppressed, bound down to their labour with fetters which it was utterly impossible for them to break. They dwindled in number and deteriorated in spirit ; but their spirit was never absolutely effete. It burned fiercely in the breasts of brigands and pirates, to some at least of whom the quest of gold and the shedding of blood appeared to be lighter crimes than submission. It burned in the breasts of the happier townsfolk,

who by commerce or intrigue were enabled to secure an exceptional freedom. It burned now and again in outbursts of rebellion—the only sacrament of slaves—especially when the Russian invasions of Greece in the eighteenth century inspired the Moreotes and the Souliotes with a hope of success. From this time to the final victory men were never wanting to a capable leader, nor the money of Greek merchants to any scheme of revolt.

The veil which history seems to have drawn over the annals of every nation subjected to the Turks has left the condition of the Greeks, during the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, in much obscurity ; but enough at all events has been revealed to warrant us in affirming the continuity of Greek descent, Greek memories and hopes, Greek struggles and aspirations, from the earliest times to the epoch of triumphant revolution.

Greece would naturally be of less account in the eyes of Europe if it were not for her ancient fame and early history. Perhaps the energetic character and commercial achievements of the people would have sufficed by this time to obtain their emancipation ; but a sentiment born of intellectual association and gratitude impelled the Western Powers to extend to the struggling nation the aid which was indispensable to its success. Comparing them

with the Bulgarians and Albanians, and even with the Servians and Roumanians, Europe judged, and judged rightly, that the race of to-day must have many of the best characteristics of its glorious ancestors ; and it was this *idea*, as much as the plain facts of the situation, which enlisted England and France on its side. But from the turning-point of the Revolution of 1821—1832, the cause of the Greeks may fairly be judged by the standard of facts, rather than of ideas. They owed their resuscitation in part to the fame of their forefathers ; they must owe their further development to the deeds of the present.

The outbreak of 1821 had long been foreseen, and even prepared for. It extended in some degree to the Greeks of the whole Turkish Empire, and was fostered, especially in Moldavia and Wallachia, by Russian intrigues, and by the fervent exhortations of patriots like Georgios Gennadios at Bucharest—a direct descendant of the Patriarch. On the Danube, the Turks had a comparatively easy victory ; but in the Morea and on the mainland of Greece the struggle was carried on desperately for several years, with a vast amount of cruelty and determination on both sides. Alternate success and failure attended the efforts of the patriots ; but, on the whole, and for the first four





A HYDRIOT SAILOR.

years, they managed to hold their own. At sea they distinguished themselves by great skill and courage, particularly in their manipulation of fire-ships. Hydra, Spetzai, Poros, and other islands, furnished admirable sailors, as well as numerous small vessels; and Miaoulis, Kanares, and one or two more, earned undying fame by their triumphs over the Turkish fleets.

By land the Greeks were less fortunate. Their soldiers lacked what their sailors possessed—a previous knowledge and experience of their craft. If it had not been for the klephths and armatoles—the former of whom had long been encouraged amongst the Greeks in the hope that they would one day be serviceable in the liberation of their country—the art of fighting would have been almost unknown in the patriot ranks. As it was, little existed beyond the mere materials of an army, and there were no great captains capable of moulding this material into shape. One of the best of the leaders was Kolokotrones, himself originally a klepht. Amongst the others were Odysseus, the Mavrokordatos, the Mavromichaelis, Prince Demetrios Hypsilantes, Markos Botzares, Karaiskakis, Kolettes, Zaimes, Kondouriates, and Londos, who, in the field or in council, earned a title to the gratitude of their countrymen. But

the rivalries and discords of some of the chiefs counteracted the heroism which was continually being displayed in the face of the enemy ; and their quarrels were carried so far that they more than once turned their arms against each other, instead of against the Turks. This may have been inevitable under the circumstances, when no individual Greek was strong enough or eminent enough to command the allegiance of the rest ; but it undoubtedly delayed the final triumph. Lord Byron, who devoted the last few months of his life to a gallant effort on behalf of the patriots, was baffled by the strife of the competitors for power. He appears at one time to have cherished the hope that they would allow him, as independent of them all, to assume the guidance of their destinies ; but his death on the 19th of April, 1824, interrupted the dream.

It was in this year that Sultan Mahmoud summoned his Egyptian vassal to assist him in suppressing the Greek insurrection ; and Mahomed Ali fitted out a powerful armament for that purpose. In the course of 1825 and 1826 Ibrahim Pasha overran the whole country, and reduced it to subjection, in spite of the co-operation with the Greeks of English, French, and German volunteers, and the pecuniary aid which was furnished to them

by Philhellenes in almost every civilized land. Generals Church and Gordon, Captain Hastings and Lord Cochrane, Fabvier and Burbaki, the Bavarian Colonel Heideck, and others, came to the rescue of the hard-pressed Greeks; but it was too late to stem the tide of conquest, even if they had had means at their disposal sufficient for the task. The Egyptians had already made themselves masters of the Morea, continental Greece, and most of the islands, and were completing the work of ruin and devastation. Their aim and that of the Porte seems to have been to convert the rebellious land into a wilderness. They destroyed houses and towns, burned the olive groves and fruit plantations, and sold into slavery all the prisoners whom they did not kill. Europe heard with horror that the conquerors had opened a slave-market at Modon, and that the Egyptian and Turkish ships were carrying off large cargoes of men, women, and children.

Meanwhile the negotiations entered into by England, France, and Russia, and more casually by Austria and Prussia, with the Porte on behalf of the Greeks, began to enter the phase of written protocols. As early as April, 1826, England and Russia agreed to propose to Turkey a settlement under which Greece should become an autonomous,

tributary state. They did not, however, make the formal proposal until June, 1827, when it was rejected by the Porte. In the following month the Treaty of London was concluded between the two Powers above named and France, pledging the signatories to offer their mediation, and to insist upon its acceptance. The offer was made, but the Porte remained obdurate. On the 20th of October the allied fleets destroyed fifty-one Turkish and Egyptian vessels in the harbour of Navarino. It is said that this act was not contemplated in, or warranted by, the instructions sent by the three Governments to their admirals. We shall probably never know by what secret orders or implied sanction the naval commanders took this decisive step; but it is certain that the destruction of the Turkish armament played a very important part in the liberation of Greece.

The battle of Navarino was not the only coercive measure arising out of the Treaty of London, and its famous secret article. In December the ambassadors withdrew from the Porte; in April, 1828, Russia declared war against Turkey; and in July a French force landed in the Gulf of Koron, and swept the Peloponnesos clear of its oppressors. Nevertheless, more than a twelvemonth elapsed before continental Hellas was able to shake off the

last of her fetters. The Russo-Turkish war ended in September, 1829, when the Porte, at Russia's demand, accepted the Treaty of London, and pledged itself to agree to whatever the Powers might consider necessary in order to carry it into effect. On February 3rd, 1830, a protocol was signed which constituted Greece an independent State; and on the 11th of the same month Prince Leopold of Belgium accepted the crown which was offered to him by the Powers. He, however, soon resigned the honour, giving for his main reason the hopelessness of establishing a Greek kingdom from which Krete, Epeiros, and Thessaly were to be excluded.

The northern boundary, as drawn in 1830, stretched from the Gulf of Zeitoun to the mouth of the Aspropotamos, thus depriving Greece of the greater part of Akarnania and Aitolia. After the assassination of Count Capodistria (who was the popularly elected President of Greece from April 14th, 1827, to October 9th, 1831), and after the Powers had selected Prince Otho of Bavaria for the position declined by Prince Leopold, an arrangement was concluded between England, France, Russia, and Turkey, whereby the boundary was drawn from the Gulf of Arta to the same termination in the Gulf of Zeitoun. But a few

months later the district of Zeitoun, north of the Spercheios, was added to Greece; and the new kingdom paid to the Porte an indemnity of 40,000,000 piastres, or about 460,000*l.* The Powers guaranteed a loan to Greece of 60,000,000 francs, out of which the payment of the indemnity was made; and thus, at last, in the autumn of 1832, the fatherland of the Greeks was redeemed.

Under Otho of Bavaria the country was governed at first by a Council of Regency, consisting of Count Armansperg, Professor Maurer, and General Heideck. Maurer was removed in 1834, and Armansperg in 1837; and at the close of the latter year, after the trial of another Bavarian as president of the Council, a Greek was for the first time appointed to the principal post in the Ministry. The greatest benefit conferred upon the country by its German rulers was the reinforcement of the legal system, and the elevation of the authority of the law. But, on the other hand, an unfortunate attempt was made to centralize the whole administration of Greece, her ancient municipal rights and customs were overlooked, taxation was almost as indiscriminate and burdensome as under the Turks, whilst large sums of money were spent upon the army, and on other objects of an unremunerative or insufficiently remunerative

character, so that the young State was laden with pecuniary liabilities before anything had been done to develope her resources. Practically unlimited power was given to the Council of Regency, which governed mainly from a Bavarian point of view, supporting its authority with a Bavarian army of some 9000 men at a cost of 9,000,000 drachmas. No national assembly was convened, no anxiety was shown to conciliate the people, liberty of expression was curtailed, personal offence was given by the foreigners, and by Armansperg in particular; brigandage and piracy flourished, and Greece began to suffer all the evils which might have been expected to arise from the government of unsympathetic aliens.

For some years after the emancipation of the country from Turkish rule, the insecurity of life and property continued. The pacification of Greece after the general upheaval and chaos of the war was naturally a matter of time, and the earlier ministers of King Otho did not contribute much to the performance of the task. In addition to the rapid and alarming increase of brigandage by land and piracy by sea, there were popular insurrections in Messenia, Maina, Akarnania, and elsewhere. One of the most capable Englishmen who have ever espoused the cause of the Greeks, General

Gordon, was commissioned in 1835 to clear northern Greece of the marauders by whom it was overrun. He executed his mission in an admirable manner, sweeping the whole of Phokis, Aitolia, and Akarnania, and securing the co-operation of the Turkish Pasha at Larissa. Hundreds of brigands were put to flight,—but only to return again next year, and to enjoy as great immunity as ever. The weakness of the frontier, of which the outlaws constantly took advantage, was soon perceived ; but Gordon and Sir Richard Church had showed the Government an easy mode of protecting it, which the King and his Ministers failed to adopt. In the absence of a strong and active organization of the national forces, brigandage in Greece was an incurable institution ; and, as a matter of fact, it was not suppressed until the year 1870.

Gradually the discontent of the people, and the feebleness and infatuation of the Government, were breeding a revolution. Armansperg had lamentably failed as a financier, and his successors were hardly more fortunate. The interest on the Allied Loan fell into arrear ; England and Russia pressed for its payment, and the King adopted severe measures for increasing the revenues, which exasperated the country. The three Guaranteeing Powers urged on Otho and his advisers the

necessity of granting a Constitution, which had been promised on the establishment of the kingdom ; and moral support was thus given to two very strong parties, known by the titles of Philorthodox and Constitutional, whose leaders looked to Russia and England respectively. The King and the Government neglected symptoms which were conspicuous to all besides, and the revolution of 1843 found them practically unprepared and helpless. On the 15th of September, after a well-contrived demonstration of the troops, which was acquiesced in and virtually sanctioned by the representatives of the three Powers, King Otho gave way, and signed the decrees which had been submitted to him. The Bavarian Ministers were dismissed, Mavrokordatos was made Premier, a National Assembly was convoked, and a Constitution was granted. For the first time since the Roman conquest, Greece resumed the dignity of self-government.

The Constitution of 1844 was by no means an adequate one. It did not fully restore the privileges of local self-rule, and it only partially modified the system of centralization, from which so many evils had sprung. But it was nevertheless a great advance towards popular liberty. It established universal suffrage, under slight qualifications ; it

declared the equality of all citizens before the law, and took one step towards giving effect to the declaration by entrusting the nomination of local magistrates to local elective bodies.

The hopes excited by this revolution were for the most part doomed to disappointment; and little else could have been expected from a state of things in which the power of the National Assembly was paralyzed by the authority of an unwise king, whilst the nominal liberty of the people was rendered futile by the subordination of their municipal rights to the caprice of the party leaders. But the worst features of the situation as it existed in Greece between the two revolutions (1843—1862) were the incompetence or unconstitutional conduct of the King's Ministers and officials, the lawlessness which prevailed in many parts of the kingdom, and the consequent insecurity of individuals and of trade. The earlier constitutional Ministries committed or permitted many illegal and violent acts, one of the worst of which was to grant an amnesty to notorious brigands, and even to employ them in the elections for the purpose of intimidation. It was long before the suspicion of complicity between Greek Ministers and the brigand chiefs was laid at rest. Kolettes, the leader of the Russian party, as Mavrokordatos was of the

English party, was Premier from 1844 to 1847 ; but he was hardly more successful in giving stability to his country than his predecessor had been. Brigandage, insurrection, and mutiny, (partly owing to the irregularity or retention of the soldiers' pay) were still rife. In 1845 the Porte complained to the Powers of the incitements to revolt held out by the Greek papers to the Sultan's Christian subjects. In 1846 Lord Palmerston remonstrated with Kolettes on the impunity granted to the marauding bands by which Greece was infested. In 1847 a quarrel arising out of the same cause threatened to bring about a rupture between Greece and Turkey, which was only avoided by a timely apology from the Government of King Otho.

Meanwhile the financial situation of the country did not improve. The interest on the guaranteed loans remained in arrear, and no interest was forthcoming on the patriotic loans contracted during the War of Liberation. The Governments of the three Powers began to renew their complaints in a more serious form, and the English Government (to which Kolettes had shown a remarkably firm front) pressed the matter in what was considered an unfriendly tone, and without waiting for the support of Russia and France. It was then

that M. Eynard, a wealthy merchant residing at Geneva, advanced a sum of 20,000*l.* for the purpose of satisfying the claim. Kolettes now proposed a plan by which he thought that the engagements of his country might be met ; though he affirmed, with some reason, that the default had been due to the insufficiency of the revenue from taxation, already grievously complained of. But the death of this statesman, in September, 1847, interrupted a career which had begun to promise well for the future of Greece ; and none of his immediate successors showed an equal aptitude for government.

In 1850, the English Government preferred certain claims against Greece, which were more or less just in themselves, but which, after an interval of thirty years, scarcely seem to have deserved the hostile intervention of one of the Great Powers. The Government of Admiral Kanares, encouraged by several of the foreign representatives at Athens, and by popular opinion, resisted the demand ; and the British fleet blockaded the Peiraios, seizing a man-of-war and two or three merchantmen as material guarantees for the payment of an indemnity. A French arbitrator, Baron Gros, was invited to Athens in order to decide as to the amount due to England and her clients, and he

assessed this amount at 150,000 drachmas. The English representative, Sir Thomas Wyse, claimed 180,000 drachmas—a difference of about 105*l.*; and, by way of enforcing his contention, the blockade was renewed. Thereupon the Greek Government yielded, and the larger amount was duly paid over.

The difficulties which arose between Russia and Turkey in 1853, and which led up to the Crimean War, inspired the Greeks with a hope that their “grand idea”—the inheritance of the dominion of Turkey in Europe, so far as the Greek-speaking provinces are concerned—might be on the eve of accomplishment; if not in its entirety, at least to the extent of adding Thessaly and Epeiros to the kingdom. The King, the Government, and the bulk of the nation, warmly sympathized with Russia, and the Philorthodox party, amongst whom the “grand idea” was a central article of faith, came prominently to the front.

The Russian army crossed the Pruth in July, 1853, and preparations were at once made by the Greeks to invade Turkey. It is true that the Government disavowed the proceedings of the armed bands who crossed the frontier, and did nothing openly to promote the movement; but the temper of the whole country was such that

England and France deemed it necessary to take urgent measures for preventing an alliance between Russia and Greece. In May, 1854, an Anglo-French force was landed at the Peiraios, where it remained until February, 1857. Pressure was thus brought to bear upon King Otho, who was not in a position to resist it. The Ministry was changed, and the King formally promised the two Governments that he would "observe faithfully a strict and complete neutrality with regard to Turkey," and that he would "immediately take all the measures necessary for making this neutrality effectual." Mavrokordatos, then representing his country at Paris, resumed the post which he had occupied ten years before, and struggled as best he might against the unpopularity of his Cabinet.

Meanwhile the Greek bands which had entered Thessaly and Epeiros were driven back by the Turks, and became a source of infinite difficulty to the Government. The humiliation of the Greeks under the foreign occupation weakened the authority of the King and his Ministers, and the unhappy country was once more a prey to rapine and disorder.

In 1857 the representatives of the three Powers at Athens constituted a commission to inquire into the financial resources of Greece. They presented their report in May, 1859, but they offered

no practical suggestions by way of remedy for the evils shown to exist, and little or no good came of the inquiry. This report stated, "that the national property was neither marked out nor known to the Government; that it was constantly lessened by encroachments; that the law entrusted the Government with a supervision over the funds of the communes; that the Government neglected this duty; that the manner of collecting the land-tax impeded the progress of agriculture; that the Ministers of Finance since the year 1845 had scarcely verified the resources and accounts of the public treasury; that, of the accounts of the years 1850, 1851, and 1852, only the accounts of 1850 had been submitted to the Chambers; that the Court of Accounts had not proved by the reports which it is bound to publish the official regularity of the accounts of the Ministers, nor that they are such as they ought to be; that the Chambers have not remedied this state of things, and the legislative control has been no more exercised than the judicial; that the accounts produced by the Greek Government did not offer the legal guarantees required for exactitude and authenticity; and that the publicity and the control of the administration, which are the guarantees to the country, did not exist."

Most of these facts had been known, or strongly suspected, beforehand ; and they are precisely such as might have been anticipated from the political and social conditions of Greece. Of economy, as the word is understood in a well-ordered and experienced State, there had been very little. Trade had increased and flourished here and there, and the mercantile wealth of particular districts was not inconsiderable ; but the foreign Monarch and his Court, the weak and tentative Ministries, the loosely organized departments, the many corrupt or incompetent officials, and the imperfect system of national and municipal government, had all combined to spend rather than to economize the revenues. It would have been an absolutely unprecedented fact if this newly emancipated people, inheriting a devastated land, and not possessing a single experience, tradition, or pattern of good government, had already developed into a prosperous commercial nation, or succeeded in making their country pay its way.

From the year 1859 a new portent began to make itself apparent in Greece. As the insurrection of 1821 may be said to have derived some of its energy from the upheaval of France and Europe in the preceding decades, so the Greek revolution of 1862 was doubtless hastened, if not suggested,

by the Italian regeneration of 1848—1861. The people of Greece naturally sympathized with the people of Italy; but King Otho did not attempt to conceal his partiality for Austria. His evident desire to assist the latter country, and the tidings of Garibaldi's great successes in Naples and Sicily, combined to widen the breach between the King and his subjects; and the unwise measures of the Ministry served to exasperate the popular feeling. The last Parliament of the Bavarian Monarch was packed with servile nominees of the Court, elected against the more popular candidates by unscrupulous bribery and intimidation. But neither by this means, nor by a show of intrusting power to the most venerated of Greek patriots, Admiral Kanaries, nor by any attempt to revive the popularity of the King and Queen, was the crisis to be avoided. On February 13th, 1862, the garrison of Nauplia revolted; other outbreaks followed; and at last, in October, during an ill-advised absence of the Monarch from his capital, the garrison of Athens broke out into open insurrection. A Provisional Government was nominated; the deposition of King Otho was proclaimed; and when the royal couple hurried back to the city they were refused an entrance. The representatives of the Powers were appealed to in vain; and the unfortunate

Bavarian, after wearing the crown for thirty years, sailed from the Peiraios never to return.

The hopes of the Greeks at once centred in Prince Alfred of England for their future king, chiefly, no doubt, because they believed that he would come to them with firm constitutional tendencies and ideas of government. But the agreement of the three Powers on the establishment of the kingdom expressly excluded from the throne all members of the reigning families of England, France, and Russia; and thus, although Prince Alfred was elected king with practical unanimity, the English Government would not sanction his acceptance of the crown. The choice eventually and happily fell upon Prince George of Denmark, the present King of the Hellenes; and neither Greece nor Europe has had reason to regret the selection. King George and his Royal Consort have borne themselves with conspicuous fidelity to the Constitution of 1864, and have deserved and won the confidence of their people.

The Powers regarded the revolution of 1862 with a benevolent mind, and England in particular hastened to give a tangible proof of her goodwill. In June, 1864, the Ionian Islands were transferred to Greece, by the Cabinet of which Lord Palmer-

ston, Lord Russell, and Mr. Gladstone were the leading members. Mr. Gladstone's mission to the Islands in 1858 had prepared the Government and people of England for this act of restitution, which had long been desired by the Ionians themselves.

From this time forward the history of modern Greece enters upon a brighter phase. It is true that the assistance given by the mother country to the Kretan insurgents in 1866-9 provoked the intervention of England and France, who could not afford to risk the consequences of a Græco-Turkish war. It is true that the financial difficulties of Greece, owing to her sacrifices at various times on behalf of the Greek subjects of Turkey, have not disappeared. It is true that many injurious conditions and constraints still retard the development of the kingdom, and render it impossible for Greece to become what Europe desires to see her. But, on the other hand, the progress of the country during the present auspicious reign, and under the existing Constitution, has been in most respects eminently satisfactory. A settled government, the rehabilitation of public order and justice, the suppression of brigandage and piracy, the gradual extension of liberal institutions and personal freedom, the unmistakable adaptation of the people to parliamentary forms, and their suc-

cessful application of the methods of representative self-rule—these are amongst the most hopeful signs of that complete regeneration to which Greece and the friends of Greece may look forward without presumption, and which they may expect without long delay.

The last chapter in the political annals of the Hellenic Kingdom dates from the Congress of Berlin, when the Powers called on Turkey to rectify her south-western frontier in a sense favourable to Greece. In one of the protocols a desire is expressed on the part of Europe that the frontier might be advanced to the valleys of the Peneios and the Kalamas ; and a clause in the Treaty pledges the signatory Powers to offer their mediation between the two interested Governments, in the event of their being unable to come to an amicable agreement. Between the summer of 1878 and the spring of 1880, no advance towards a settlement was made ; and thus a question on which the future of Greece so largely depends was allowed to remain unsolved.



CHAPTER VI.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS.

THE history of the Greeks, alike in ancient and in modern times, shows us that the genius of the race is inclined to the arts of peace rather than to those of war, to the perfection of laws rather than to the extension of dominion, to individual freedom on homestead and hearth rather than to centralized authority pressing on the entire nation. A striking contrast exists in this respect between the Greeks and the Romans. In the language of the latter a dozen words instantly occur to the mind, concisely expressing the ideas of empire, dominion, authority, subjection, government, many of which ideas found no exact expression in the Greek tongue. There was never yet an empire of Greece, that is to say an empire having its seat at Athens or in the Peloponnesos. The Byzantine empire became practically Greek, but it was based on a Roman foundation, and its purely military sway was brief

and of little significance. But an empire in another and better sense—an empire by colonization and commerce, only supported by arms—the Greeks of Greece unquestionably established ; and, if the race is ever again to dominate and wield authority over a wide empire, it must be by its development as an industrious and peaceful nation, and its strength must be derived from that brave spirit of enterprising commerce which (as in the case of the English-speaking nations) generally knows how to hold its own against all comers.

Since its establishment by the Great Powers, Greece has had three national Constitutions. The first was conferred upon it by a decree of King Otho in 1835. The second was exacted by the people in 1844. The third was adopted by common consent of King George and the people in 1864. The instrument of 1835, though not a Constitution in the worthiest sense of the word, and though it did not entitle Otho to call himself a constitutional monarch, was nevertheless framed by the Bavarians with some little regard to the character of the people to whom it was to apply. By comparing it with the two charters of 1844 and 1864, we may perceive in what direction the mind of the people advanced in their progress towards self-government.

King Otho's decree simply appointed a Council of State, with a minimum of twenty members, all nominated by himself, and removable at his pleasure. Their business was to advise the King on subjects referred to them, and to deliberate on the form of decrees suggested by the Monarch or his Ministers. The paternal character of this Royal ordinance is illustrated by the fifteenth article, which directs that the Councillors should go from time to time into the provinces, "to assure themselves as to the manner in which the executive power is administered, to take cognizance of the complaints, wants, and wishes of the inhabitants, and to make a report direct to the King." Apart from this provision, and the general right of appeal to the Council, no initiation was allowed to the people, and no one had a voice in the government of the State except by favour of the King.

There was, however, another decree of King Otho's, signed at the end of 1833, which secured to the Greeks a fair measure of municipal self-government, and which was at all events a theoretical guarantee of personal liberty. According to this ordinance, the whole land was divided into *demoi*, or communes, every town or village of 300 inhabitants being allowed to form a *demos*. The elective body consisted of male residents in houses,

over the age of twenty-five ; the vote being taken by ballot, after the administering of a strict oath whereby the voter declared his conscientious respect for king, country, and commune, and his freedom from corruption. Only one-eighth of the inhabitants, in the order of their taxation, were eligible as councillors ; and these were subsequently to choose their aldermen, as well as three candidates for the office of demarch, whereof one was to be selected by the King. There were to be three classes of communes, whereof the first, containing more than 10,000 inhabitants, were to have from four to six aldermen, and a municipal council of eighteen. In communes of between 2000 and 10,000, the aldermen were to number between two and four, and the councillors twelve. Communes of less than 2000 were to have one alderman and a council of six. The higher officers were to be elected for three years, the councils being renewable by thirds at the successive triennial elections. Local business of almost every kind was entrusted to these councils ; but there were certain important limitations of their authority. The original formation of the communes was to be effected by the King (that is, by the Council of Regency) ; and the King also appointed the officers of police, and removed the demarchs or dissolved the councils at

his will. The right of public meeting was withheld, and a voter was disfranchised by the mere allegation of an offence against the law, before proof. Moreover, the general business of the commune, and the administration of the funds in particular, were to be carried on "in the name of the State," and under the control of the Government. There were clauses providing for personal service and forced labour, and for the billeting of troops. Local taxation was to be levied on the same principle as the State taxes; but the parish priests and schoolmasters were exempted. The municipal authorities were tax collectors for the Government, as well as for local purposes. After levying the aggregate amount, and paying over the sum in which their commune was assessed to the State, it remained for them to meet the expenditure on police, salaries, elementary education, public offices, roads and bridges, aqueducts and wells, the communal boundaries, shore works where necessary, elections, charities, and the maintenance of churches. But it was provided that no member of a commune should be called upon to pay a rate in support of a church or school of a different denomination from his own.

This municipal constitution, founded to a large extent upon customs and privileges which the

local communities had retained under Capodistria, and even under the Turks, is the basis of the existing communal law of Greece. It has been modified in some particulars, so as to harmonize with the freer national constitution of 1864. But the substance of the ordinance of 1833 (as also of the ordinances on public health, vaccination, food, &c., promulgated about the same time) is maintained to the present day, as it well deserves to be. The provisions are on the whole judicious and liberal, their practical value to the people depending largely upon the character of the central Government. Under King Otho this Government was a bad one, and municipal freedom was in consequence hardly more than nominal. "One of the worst evils of King Otho's reign was the destruction of self-government in the municipalities of Greece, and the conversion of the municipal administration into an agency for executing the orders of the central authority. This rendered the demarchies nests of ministerial, courtly, and party patronage. If self-government means that the people in their municipalities elect their executive officers, like mayors, as well as their legislators, like common councilmen, and that when the people elect to any office the law alone can remove or suspend their nominee from the exercise

of his functions, then Greece had no such thing as self-government during Otho's reign. He had so completely nullified municipal institutions that the local revenues of the country were diverted from objects of improvement to paying officials." (*Finlay.*)

The Constitution of 1844 did little to remedy this state of things. The clauses which, if strictly observed, would have corrected the vices of centralization, and insured the independence of the local communities, were not fairly carried into effect. All citizens were declared equal before the law, but they were not so; or rather the law was not equal before them. Intrigue and patronage continued to direct the relations between the State and the municipalities. The new Constitution took little or no account of the citizen in his commune, and the consequence was that the demarchies profited only through the increased public rights of the individual, and not by any increase of municipal privileges.

The public rights conferred in 1844 centred in the attainment of universal suffrage, and in the establishment of parliamentary government. For the next twenty years the parliamentary status of the Greeks was superior to their municipal status. Aldermen and demarchs were still elected by councillors having a property qualification, as

these were elected by householders ; but the electors of the deputies were a far wider body. As Mr. Finlay observes : "A system tending more directly to perpetuate mal-administration in the municipalities, nullity in the Provincial Councils, and corruption in the Chamber of Deputies, could not have been devised." Nevertheless a notable advance was made in 1844 by the nation as a whole. It had secured a lever and a fulcrum ; for the Constitution, better in theory than in immediate application, provided a point of support from which Greece was enabled to obtain still more valuable results.

The Constitution of 1864 was almost as great an improvement upon the Constitution of 1844 as the latter was upon the Royal Ordinance of 1835. The revolution of 1862 was a tardy national protest against the centralization of King Otho's government, and the official corruption which it engendered and fostered. It was essentially a popular revolt, a reaction against the suppression of popular rights and the over-taxation of municipalities. A remedy was obtained, partly by distinct clauses in the new Constitution, partly by subsequent modifications of the law, and indirectly by the purification of the Administrative Government under a more strictly constitutional régime.

The clauses of the Constitution affecting the rights of the citizen in his commune, specifically or by implication, are numerous. With the declaration of universal equality before the law came several important guarantees of judicial purity, the independence of local jurisdictions, ministerial responsibility for every act of the Executive, and the liability of public and municipal officers for illegality in the exercise of their functions. The right "to assemble tranquilly and unarmed" for elective or other purposes, the right to form associations, and a very liberal right of the Press, are firmly established. Education is recognized as a State concern, the State providing higher education out of the public funds, and contributing to the communal schools according to their necessities. No levy can be made upon the municipal funds on behalf of the Government or by any external authority, unless it has been voted by the House of Representatives, though at the same time there is provision (perhaps of doubtful adequacy) for the checking of local expenditure. From 1864 the demarchs, and paid officials generally, were declared ineligible for the House; and it is a maxim of the Greek constitution that the deputies represent the nation, not the eparchy which chooses them. These regulations aimed at

a complete severance of the most corrupt channels of influence which had hitherto existed between the local administrations and the central Government. The principle of direct, universal suffrage by ballot is extended to the municipal elections ; and, as the Crown has no powers except those expressly assigned to it by the Constitution, and as all laws and ordinances in opposition to this Constitution are annulled, we may conclude that the independence of the municipalities is virtually assured. The privileges of self-government in Greece are as definite as in England, whilst in some few respects they are more extended, and more democratic in form.

The leading characteristics of the valuable instrument of 1864, as affecting individuals in their ordinary life, have now been mentioned. But in addition to the municipal rights, to the equality of citizens before the law, to the right of meeting and freedom of the Press, to ministerial responsibility and fixed jurisdictions, the Constitution establishes many other axioms of popular liberty and public order. Inviolability of person, property, and domicile, with carefully guarded exceptions ; the limitation of punishments ; the strict definition of the royal prerogative, which is large but not (under the circumstances of the kingdom) excessive ; the liberal

interpretation of parliamentary rights ; judicial security, qualified by appeal, by jury trial, and by the removability of justices of the peace,—these are characteristic features of the Constitution of 1864, which has been accepted and acted up to by both Monarch and people, and which has converted Greece from one of the most disorderly to one of the most orderly States in Europe.

Greece has no aristocracy and no Senate. The first is barred by the Constitution ; and, though a Council of State, having the nature of a Senate, was provided for in the instrument of 1864, it was abolished in the succeeding year. The legislative power is intrusted to the King and to the House of Representatives, the former acting solely through his Ministers. A *veto* rests with either party. The House, which is elected for a term of four years, usually assembles for its ordinary session at the beginning of November, and sits not less than three nor more than six months in a year. No sitting can be held unless more than half the whole number of deputies are present. A vote of the House is necessary to the imposition of a tax, but it cannot originate a proposal to increase the public expenditure by salary or pension. The actual number of deputies is 190. Their qualification is the possession of property in the eparchy by which

they are chosen, or the exercise of some independent profession or trade. A payment of 2000 drachmas (75*l.*) for each ordinary session was assigned to them by a clause of the Constitution, but the acceptance of any post under the Government vacates the seat.

It has been computed that the Parliamentary franchise in Greece is possessed by 311 out of every 1000 inhabitants. The ratio in England is about 90 to the 1000. Even in France, where universal suffrage is established, there are only 270 electors amongst 1000 inhabitants. Few countries in the world can boast of a more thoroughly popular form of representative government.

The political ideas of the Greeks are governed by several distinct and peculiar facts, which it is very necessary to take into account, inasmuch as they give rise to constant disturbances in the current of parliamentary life. In the first place, the position of Greece in Europe has excluded anything like finality from the minds of her statesmen, who have found it impossible to regard the frontiers of the country as definitive, or to limit their policy to its peaceful government. The Greece of 1832 was tentative; the Greece of 1864 was tentative; and the Powers in 1878 practically admitted that even the enlarged Greece which they contemplated

would be tentative. In such circumstances a quiet domestic policy is an impossibility. Patriotism in Greece implies an ambition for extended frontiers ; every party necessarily frames its programme on this basis. The most ambitious programme of all is that which includes what is called the "grand idea"—that Greece is heir to more or less of Turkey's remaining possessions in Europe. This, no doubt, is the cherished conviction of the people as a whole ; and it is consequently the most potent factor in Greek political life. Around this fact are grouped a number of minor difficulties, which render the task of any Government an arduous one—such as the necessity of maintaining friendly relations with all the Great Powers, to the extent of crossing the wishes of the people, or humiliating the Monarch, or changing a Ministry, on the bidding of one or more of the European Cabinets. It is not exclusively a Greek ambition, but almost a postulate of international diplomacy, that Greece should be prepared to play a leading part in south-eastern Europe as soon as the proper moment arrives. For good or evil it is regarded as a condition of national existence that the army should be kept up to a certain strength, and that an expenditure should be incurred on various objects not essential to the internal welfare of the country.

All this entails foreign loans, financial embarrassment, and a heavy taxation, with the diversion of the revenue to non-economical purposes.

Another obstacle to calm government and industrial progress is the excessive eagerness of competent men to obtain offices of emolument, or to push to the front in the arena of politics. This excess, which is freely acknowledged and lamented amongst the Greeks themselves, arises in part from the ambitions already mentioned, in part from the high standard of education, in part from the political education of all classes due to universal suffrage, and in part from the immigration of more or less able men from the Greek provinces of Turkey, anxious to take their share in the work of national development and progress. The competition for office, and the keenness with which the applicants pursue their quest, are clearly unfavourable to the steady continuity of political life. Greece has enough politicians, clerks, lawyers, functionaries actual or possible, to administer a large empire ; but meanwhile she has too many for her own need, or for the satisfaction of all the deserving candidates for work.

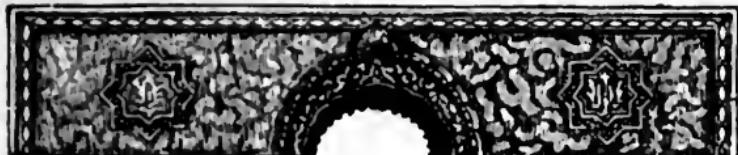
There would be more danger for Greece in this avidity of office and authority if it were not for the strong common sense and constitutional moderation

which the country has exhibited since its establishment as a kingdom. Whatever greed, or animosity, or ambition, has been manifested in the domain of politics, the people does not allow itself to be drawn into violent courses. The Constitutions of 1844 and 1864 were exacted by the mere firmness of the national attitude, almost without striking a blow ; and on several occasions during the reign of King George, though the nation has been deeply moved, and there has seemed to be a danger of civil strife, yet peace has always been maintained by the prevalence of a sound public opinion, capable, by this time, of perceiving how much more the country has to gain by physical and moral order than by any revolutionary process. One of the last constitutional measures of the Greek Parliament was a law, inspired by the ministerial crisis of 1875, which distinctly increases the responsibility of the Ministers and higher administrative officials, rendering their tenure of office more directly dependent on a scrupulous observance of the limits assigned to their authority.

The sharpest distinction of parties amongst Greek politicians of the higher order is that which springs from a divergence of views on the appropriateness of the Constitution to the actual condition of the country. Some there are who consider that Greece

has been endowed with too large a measure of political privilege, and who would consequently modify the scope of the Charter of 1864. For example, they would create a Senate, contract the suffrage, and decrease the power which is now wielded by the House of Representatives. To these are opposed the advocates of popular sovereignty in a bold and fearless sense, as now established and recognized by law. Unless a partial fulfilment of the national ambitions which all Greeks nurse in common should suffice to merge these differences, it seems probable that the Reactionaries and Constitutionalists will henceforth more and more prominently occupy the political stage.





CHAPTER VII.

THE NATIONAL DEFENCES.

THE Greek army has naturally played an important part in the affairs of Greece, from the War of Liberation down to the present day. If it cannot be said that the people has on every occasion derived advantage from the intervention of military men in political matters, still it is a fact that the soldier and the civilian have laboured side by side in the attainment of popular freedom, and in pursuit of the objects of a common patriotism. Up to the accession of Otho the armed bands that covered the country—for Greece had then no organized army—were often at strife amongst themselves, and generally a grievous burden to the peaceable inhabitants. Little by little they acquired discipline and solidity, and no country could desire to see a better moral tone in its soldiers than that which pervaded the troops of General Kalergi in 1843, when the Greeks won

a large accession of liberties by a simple military parade. The attitude of both officers and men was almost equally satisfactory in the revolution of 1862-3; and, since the vindication of public order was rendered complete by the measures taken against brigandage in 1870, Greece has rarely had to complain of either excess or shortcoming in the patriotic zeal of her soldiers.

It is sometimes affirmed that the military element is still too predominant in the country, that too much is spent upon the army, and that officers of the two fighting services might with advantage be excluded from the House of Representatives in particular. Under the Constitution of 1864, the duties of a Representative are declared to be compatible with those of military or naval officers, though it is also provided that any officer elected whilst on active service shall be placed on half-pay during the whole representative period, or until he is recalled for service. It is further laid down that officers may claim leave of absence during five months and a half before the date of the elections. The latter, no doubt, is an exceptional privilege, and there can be no question as to the general unwisdom of holding out a premium to attract officers of the army and navy into a national Parliament. But the condition of society and of

public opinion in Greece, at all events when the Constitution was framed, required that these concessions should be made. And it does not appear that any practical harm has arisen to the State from the military leaven in the Representative House. It is quite possible that the temper of the people, and the ardour with which they have occasionally initiated the most hazardous enterprises, might have carried them into excess if they had not been checked by the professional prudence of men who were in a position to estimate the real force of the country.

The army is thoroughly popular in Greece, and every effort is made to preserve its popularity. Commissions and promotions, though conferred by royal decree, are practically the reward of study and professional merit, a fair proportion being maintained between the steps by seniority and the promotions by selection. Military service is for the Greeks an open career; there is no purchase, and merit is fairly certain of its reward. Thus the commandant of a corps is entitled, in conformity with the regulations, to nominate corporals, sergeants, and quartermasters, from the ranks; and, on passing certain examinations, and serving one or two years according to circumstances, the quartermasters receive the king's commission as

adjutants. This latter position may also be obtained direct from the military school of the "Euelpides," at the Peiraios—a national establishment where, at an annual cost of from 20*l.* to 50*l.*, forty young men at a time are prepared for the army by a seven years' course, under military discipline, and subject to severe examinations.

The adjutant, after one year's service in the army, or six months' service in a foreign army, is eligible for the commission of sub-lieutenant. From thence to lieutenant and captain, the steps are made two-thirds by seniority and one-third by selection. Of the superior officers, majors are chosen half by one method and half by the other ; whilst lieutenant-colonels, colonels, generals of brigade, and generals of division, are promoted entirely by selection. There are no honorary grades, so that promotion can only occur upon the death, resignation, legal dismissal, or superannuation of an officer. Superior officers may be removed from the active list at sixty-five, and subalterns at fifty-five.

The monthly pay of a general is 690 drachmas (about 25*l.*), of a colonel 590 drs., of a major, from 429 drs. to 440 drs., of a captain, from 280 drs. to 310 drs., of an adjutant, from 100 drs. to 110 drs. The sergeant receives a daily pay of 60 to 68

lepta (about 6*d.*) ; and the common soldier receives half as much, with thirty ounces of bread, and an allowance of about 3*d.* for the rest of his food. All ranks receive moderate pensions after 25 years' service ; and these payments cannot be touched by creditors, except for the maintenance of a pensioner's wife, children, or parents. Widows of officers also receive a small sum during their lives ; whilst officers of every grade, when incapacitated by wounds or otherwise, can claim either a pension or a sum of money in commutation.

If the Greeks were not at once a poor and a frugal people, the army could scarcely be a popular service under these conditions of pay and retirement. Nevertheless its popularity is unquestioned ; and it may be accounted for, amongst other causes, by the constant appeal to merit as the title to promotion.

The regular Greek army on a peace establishment numbers about 14,000 men, distributed as follows :—

Infantry, 10 battalions, 60 companies . . .	8700 men
Chasseurs, 4 , , 16 , , . . .	2000 ,,
Artillery, 1 battalion, 6 , , . . .	900 ,,
Cavalry, 1 , , 4 squadrons . . .	420 ,,
Engineers, 1 , , 4 companies . . .	500 ,,

The gendarmerie, numbering from 1300 to 1600

men, are also regarded as belonging to the army. The numbers above given represent the full strength of the companies, and include 754 superior officers and subalterns, and 1961 under-officers.

The army is recruited by conscription, to which the whole population (with certain exemptions) is subject between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four. This method is supplemented, or rather modified, by voluntary enlistment between the ages of eighteen and thirty, and by the re-enlistment of discharged soldiers up to the age of thirty-five. The rank and file serve for three years under the flag, and for a further term of three years in the reserve, which practically brings the numbers of the regular army capable of being called out on emergency to something like 20,000 men. The whole force is provided with breechloaders, and the artillery with rifled bronze cannon, like those adopted in France. The gendarmerie are recruited from discharged under-officers, privates of good character, able to read and write, the town police, &c., up to the age of forty. Part of these are mounted, but they provide their own horses.

To each battalion a school is attached, wherein the under-officers instruct the soldiers, and the superior officers give similar aid to the under-officers; provision being also made for the higher

instruction of officers, and men of all subordinate ranks.

There are, in addition, six corps of officers without rank and file, performing special service in relation to the regular army. Of these, the scientific Staff Corps consists of men who have received special training, and who are eligible for missions in other countries, though each member continues to hold rank in some corps or garrison on the regular establishment. The corps of Engineer officers are employed on public works throughout the country, and from amongst them are selected the officers of the battalion of Engineers. The remaining corps are those of the Sanitary service, the Intendance, the Artillery Depôt, and the Royal Greek Phalanx—the latter comprising the veterans of the War of Liberation, and being purely an honorary body.

The military penal code is based upon that of France. There are two permanent Councils of War and a Court of Revision ; the decrees of these courts being again subject to the Court of Cassation, in certain cases stipulated by law. Courts martial are permitted only in time of war. There is, moreover, a section of Justice in the department of the Minister of State for War ; and two inspectors, of the rank of general or colonel, periodically

visit the depôts and establishments, and make their report to the Minister.

The principal military establishments in Greece besides those above mentioned, are the Arsenal at Nauplia, the powder factory in Argolis, on the river Erasinos, the barracks at Athens, Nauplia, Corfu, &c., a number of depôts and magazines, and the four hospitals of Athens, Nauplia, Corfu and Lamia. The largest of these is the Corfu hospital, which contains a thousand beds. In the Athens hospital there is an ambulance corps, with surgeons, nurses, and a class for instruction.

It would, of course, be a mistake to conclude that the fighting strength of Greece in the field is even approximately represented by the twenty thousand men composing her regular army and reserves. The true force of the country resides in its National Guard, which may be estimated at 200,000 men, divided into two classes, according to their age and readiness for active service. The first class consists of all citizens between the ages of twenty and fifty, with certain legal exemptions, who are regularly drilled within their several communes. The second class, or sedentary guard, includes men under twenty and over fifty years, and could only be called out in a case of the greatest emergency. The National Guard is at

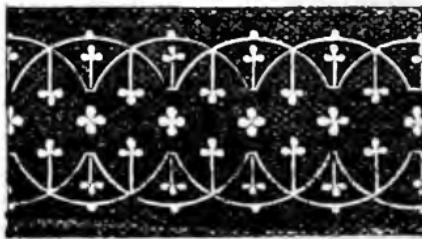
the disposal of the Minister of the Interior, but in time of war it would receive its orders from the War Minister.

The expenditure of Greece on the regular army and the military establishment amounts to between one-sixth and one-fifth of the entire expenditure of the country. In the budget of 1877 the amount was 7,637,104 drachmas, or a little over a quarter of a million sterling. This implies, in round numbers, a cost of about 18*l.* per man, which is barely half of the corresponding cost in France, and a much smaller fraction of the average cost of an English soldier. It is true that Greece spends a very large proportion of her revenues on her national defences : but the average burden of the charge upon individual Greeks is less than in the case of any of the Great Powers, and less than in the guaranteed kingdom of Belgium. Such as it is, perhaps there is no country in which the cost of warlike armaments and preparations is more cheerfully borne than it is in Greece, where the anticipation of a national crisis, in which every man may need to be a soldier, is universal and ineradicable.

With regard to the magnitude and cost of the Greek army, it must be observed that the figures given in this chapter refer to the normal condition

of affairs, as existing previously to 1877, and as since restored. But even in the budget for 1880 allowance was made for no more than 17,500 men.

The Greek navy is small and almost insignificant, consisting of two ironclads and a dozen other vessels of various capacity. Nor is the coast well defended against attack, either by strong fortresses or by any other of the means which modern science has devised for that purpose. Nevertheless in case of need the country would doubtless be well served, as it was in the War of Liberation, by its mercantile fleet, and by the great skill and courage of its sailors, who could speedily convert the merchant vessels into ships of war. The total expenditure of Greece on her navy is little more than a quarter of that which is devoted to the army.





CHAPTER VIII.

RELIGION.

THE national religion of Greece is that of the Orthodox Oriental Apostolic Church, in communion with the Greek Church of Constantinople, but autonomously governed by a Synod having its seat at Athens. There is practically a complete toleration of other creeds, both in public opinion and by law.

The character and position of the Greek Church in the East, whether in Greece itself, in Turkey, in Russia, or in the Danubian Principalities, will be better understood by tracing its history from the beginning.

After the acceptance of Christianity by the Roman Emperor Constantine, the Council of Constantinople (A.C. 301), confirmed by the Council of Chalcedon (451), recognized the Archbishops of Rome, Byzantium, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem, as Popes or Patriarchs of the Church, having

independent jurisdiction within their several subdivisions of Christendom. The Patriarch of Byzantium, or Constantinople, was styled *Œcumene* towards the end of the sixth century, an assumption of supremacy which the Popes of Rome greatly resented ; and at this time the disputes between the Eastern and Western Churches became constant and bitter. The Iconoclast and other controversies, the loss to the Empire of the exarchate of Italy in 752, the weakening of the Asiatic Churches by Saracen inroads, all contributed to widen the breach ; and the attacks on Constantinople by the crusaders aggravated, as they were partly instigated by, this quarrel of the Churches. The discords of Christian Europe played into the hands of the Turks ; but it must not be forgotten, on the other hand, that several of the Popes of Rome in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries attempted to rouse western Europe against the Mahomedan invaders.

Mahomet II. drew a distinction between the Churches of Egypt, Syria, and Asia Minor, and the Church of Constantinople. The former had been almost destroyed by his predecessors, but the latter was tolerated, and even strengthened. Mahomet himself installed Gennadios Scholarios as Patriarch, and allowed a certain measure of liberty

to the Greek Church, shrewdly perceiving that it was a necessary element of order, and perhaps a guarantee of submission, amongst the disorganized provinces of the conquered empire. Thus the religious and educational influences of the Greeks were kept alive ; and the continuity of the ecclesiastical schools has been maintained from the time of the younger Theodosius, who fostered education in the fifth century, to our own age. Under the reorganization effected by Gennadios and his successors, the Archbishoprics of the Eastern Church, whereof there had once been eleven within the confines of the modern kingdom of Greece (1879), were reduced to ten, having their seats at Kizykos, Nikaea, Cæsarea, Ephesos, Smyrna, Adrianopolis, Chalcedon, Dereon, Thessalonika, and Larissa.

In the seventeenth century the Russian Church severed itself from that of Constantinople. An "Exposition of the Russian Creed," of course claiming to be orthodox, was drawn up, sanctioned by the Patriarch, and eventually accepted as a symbol of the State Religion by Peter the Great.

On the conclusion of the War of Independence, during which the Greek clergy had borne their part in the patriotic struggle, a conference was held at

Nauplia, in 1833, between several members of King Otho's first ministerial council and thirty-six bishops, for the purpose of arranging an administrative separation of the Church of Greece from the Church of Constantinople. A declaration was signed, in the name of the King, by the Council of Regency and the Ministers, affirming that the Orthodox Oriental Apostolic Church of the Kingdom of Greece was "free, and independent of any foreign power, without prejudice to the unity of the faith hitherto recognized by all orthodox Oriental Churches." The King was named as its temporal head, and a Synod of five was appointed, to sit at Athens, for the government of the Church, subject only to the Minister of Religion. A Royal Commissioner was also to represent the Government at the synodal meetings; but the authority of the Synod was to be supreme in all spiritual concerns. The Greek Ministers who signed this document were Trikoupi, Mavrokordatos, Psyllas, Praides, and Kolettes.

The first Synod of Athens consisted of the Metropolitans of Korinth, Thebes, and Santorini, the former Metropolitan of Larissa, and the Bishop of Andrussa. From the year 1852 vacancies in the Synod have been filled up by seniority amongst the thirty-one bishops of Greece. The Synod

now nominates three candidates for an episcopal vacancy, whereof the King selects one. Priests and deacons are appointed by the bishops, but the principle of popular election is maintained by requiring each candidate to present a form of requisition asking for his consecration. As an extra guarantee of the preservation of sound doctrine, a preacher or lecturer is appointed in every department, whose business it is to expound the gospel to the flocks of the priests, often indigent, and, as a consequence, ignorant.

The Metropolitan of Athens receives from the State a salary of 6000 drachmas, or about £14*l*. The other archbishops receive 5000 drachmas, and bishops 4000 drachmas—the pay of an English curate. This, however, is not the whole of their income, which is increased by fees and other ecclesiastical dues. The Preachers also are paid by the State; but the priests and deacons depend entirely upon fees.

There are about 1500 monks in Greece, distributed amongst eighty authorized convents, and nearly as many unauthorized. The authorized convents for nuns are only three in number. A law of 1834, suppressing all the monasteries containing less than five monks, put an end to no fewer than 332 of these religious establishments,

many of whose inmates had perished nobly in the War of Liberation. There remained about 120, since reduced by one-third. The convents in Greece are subject, in all temporal matters, to the civil authorities of the departments in which they are situated.

After taking holy orders, no one is allowed to marry; but, as married men may become priests, it is not unnatural that the great majority of the lower ecclesiastical orders have wives and families, and therefore remain more closely identified with the rest of the people than is the case with the Roman Catholic priesthood.

The principal festivals of the Greek Church are —Easter Sunday and Monday, Whit Sunday, June 29th, and August 15th, sacred respectively to the Apostles and the Virgin, Christmas Day, Epiphany, and the Feast of Annunciation. The State further recognizes as public holidays Good Friday and the day following, Whit Monday, Ascension Day, the Feast of the Assumption, the two days following Christmas Day, and the days of St. George, St. Constantine, St. Spyridion, and St. Demetrios. It is the custom in Greece to observe the day of one's patron saint, rather than the anniversary of one's birthday. The saints whose clients are most numerous are



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Michael, Basil, Nicholas, John Baptist, Chrysostom, Athanasios, Anastasios, Luke, and Gregory.

The creed of the Greeks differs from that of the Latin Catholics mainly in its distinctive dogma as to the procession of the Holy Ghost from the Father alone, and in the fact of its completeness as based upon the seven great Councils, no addition or modification of dogma being admitted. The Greek Church maintains the seven sacraments, including baptism by immersion, simultaneous confirmation, transubstantiation (with leavened bread and the mixed chalice), universal communion in both kinds, and unction (not necessarily "extreme"). It inculcates prayer to the Virgin, and to saints and angels (for their intercession), the veneration of pictures in the church, the veneration of relics, and (optional) oral confession. It has, however, protested against the idea of justification by works, the residence of the soul in purgatory, the granting of indulgences, the vicarious divinity of Pope or Patriarch; and of course it has not followed the Church of Rome in the novel dogmas of Papal infallibility, and the immaculate conception of the Virgin. In the famous controversies as to image-worship and the procession of the Third Person, the Greek Church has clung to the positions which it originally

assumed, upholding with great firmness its independence of Rome, its definitive and simple creed, and its distinctive forms and traditions of worship.

The Greeks have always held that the superior authority of the Bishops of Constantinople and Rome was derived merely from the importance of those cities as the ancient and modern capitals of the empire ; and to this rejection of the absolutism claimed by the Latin Popes is due the ease with which local ecclesiastical autonomies have been formed, in Russia, in the Slavonic States, and in the kingdom of Greece, whilst the character of the Oriental creed has been practically unaffected. The last operations of this kind were witnessed in the severing of the Bulgarian Church from that of Constantinople, and in the assumption of an autocephalous character by the Church of Servia.

Great toleration is practised in Greece ; Roman Catholics, Protestants, Jews, and Mahomedans exercising their faith in complete freedom. There were at one time as many as thirty-four Catholic sees, established in the days of Venetian, Frank, and Genoese domination ; but the number is now much reduced. The majority of Catholics reside in Tenos, Santorini, Syra, and Naxos, where they have colleges, schools, and convents. Their num-

ber, however, does not seem to increase ; they are now estimated at about 12,500, though Mr. Strong, in 1842, reported as many as 25,000. Of non-Christians there are 3500, mostly Jews residing in Corfu. The contrast between the state of the Jews in Greece and that of their brethren in Roumania and Servia is as remarkable as the contrast between the Roman Catholics of Greece and those of Russia. As the conditions of religion are almost identical in each case, we must look for the cause of the phenomenon to the character of the national institutions, and to the genius of the respective races.





CHAPTER IX.

AGRICULTURE.

AGRICULTURE was the special and characteristic occupation of the ancient Greeks in time of peace. Virgil, in his "Georgics," writing for Romans, gives the science a Greek name, and reveals in his first few lines how almost exclusively his conception of the principles of husbandry was derived from the Greeks. He invokes Ceres, and the Dryads, and Aristaios, and Pan, and Minerva ; he mentions the acorns of Chaonia, the grapes of the valley of Acheloös, the fertile island of Keos, the cattle and sheep, the olives, fruits, and timber of Greece ; and he accepts the fable which attributes the invention of the plough to Triptolemos. In view of the high reputation of Greek agriculture in former times, it is interesting to inquire how far the older traditions of the country are maintained in this respect.

The question which we have to ask is not whether the present may be compared with the

past, but whether the Greeks of to-day have shown an aptitude in husbandry, and a success in the cultivation of their natural crops, such as might be expected from the descendants of a race famous for its agricultural achievements. In seeking an answer to this question, it must be borne in mind that the experiment has been a short one, and that great results have been impossible. So long as the land was in subjection to foreign masters, agriculture could never be systematically pursued ; the inhabitants of the fertile valleys were constantly being driven to the mountains for a refuge, and were fleeced closer than their own sheep. There was no great increase of wealth, or skill, or natural resources ; and the War of Liberation destroyed what little there had been, compelling the nation to start again, as though from a virgin soil. In the land of Triptolemos, the hundredth generation was almost destitute of a plough.

The agricultural statistics of modern Greece cannot, therefore, be considered previous to the year 1830. Cultivation became more regular and accumulative in its effects from the time of Capodistria ; but no notable progress was made during the first unsettled years. In 1842 it was estimated that the productive soil of Greece, including forests and arable lands, amounted to about 15,000,000 strem-

mas,¹ whereof the forests occupied 7,000,000, the vineyards 750,000, the fruit groves and plantations 58,650. The latest estimate, including the Ionian Islands, is as follows :—

Cereals and other farinaceous plants	4,101,671
Vegetable and market-garden crops	26,579
Industrial cultures (for manufacture)	1,921,422
Fruit-trees	90,131
Grape and currant vines	1,237,388
Grass-lands	4,121,337
Fallow	3,500,000
Forests	6,000,000
<hr/>	
Stremmas	20,998,528

Now the total area of Greece is about 50,000,000 stremmas; so that the proportion of the soil more or less cultivated, or at any rate naturally productive, is over forty per cent. Excluding the natural grass-lands and the forests, there are 10,762,342 stremmas under process of actual tillage (allowance being made for 268,133 stremmas of tilled meadow-land). This is a proportion of more than twenty per cent.; and it bears a favourable comparison (all things considered) with the

¹ 10 stremmas = 1 French hectare = 2·47 acres; so that a stremma is about one-quarter of an acre.

condition of the soil in Scotland, where the total acreage is 19,496,132, and the number of acres under cultivation, excluding "natural grass," is about 4,000,000. The comparison between these two countries is an interesting one. They have many points of resemblance in physical configuration; and what Greece gains in climate and natural fertility Scotland makes up for in capital, in agricultural science, in appliances, and modes of intercommunication. It is, therefore, a fact of some significance that whilst, in 1879, Scotland devoted less than one seventh of her total acreage to seed-crops, Greece, in 1875, devoted a slightly higher proportion to the same crops (7,000,000 stremmas), in addition to 3,000,000 stremmas of fruit plantations. In the case of both countries, about one-half of the seed-crops consists of cereals and farinaceous food; but here again the proportion is if anything slightly in favour of Greece.

Of course the actual food-producing power of Scotland is greater than that of Greece; but the advance of the latter country has been relatively superior. The area of land under cultivation, in the provinces which formed the kingdom of Otho, has increased since 1860 in the proportion of 11 to 7, whilst it has nearly doubled since 1830. Between 1860 and 1875, the quantity of cereals

produced in the same provinces increased in the proportion of 11 to 9. The area of the vineyards and currant plantations was reckoned, in 1820, at 56,000 stremmas, and it is now (excluding the Ionian Isles) more than a million. In the same period the mulberry-trees have increased in number from 380,000 to more than 1,300,000. The olives, in 1834, numbered 2,300,000, and they are now reckoned at 7,050,000. The exportation of Messenian figs amounted in 1840 to less than 42,000 quintals,² whilst in 1875 the exported produce of Messenia alone was nearly 162,000 quintals. In 1834 there were estimated to be 50,000 fig-trees in Greece ; there are now close upon a million.

These figures attest more than a simply natural increase ; they bear witness to a great and steady development of national and individual industry. And all this progress has been effected in spite of a very heavy taxation on agriculture, in spite of a difficult and expensive communication between field and market, in spite of the lack of capital and appliances to which a nation of peasant cultivators—in a poor country like Greece—is necessarily subject. Neither too much nor too little must be deduced from these facts. The industry of Greece is interesting, not so much on account of the magni-

² The quintal = about 220 lbs.



A REAPER; AIGINA.



tude of its results as for the evidence which it affords of the national struggle against overwhelming disadvantages.

The area devoted to cereals and other farinaceous plants is distributed as follows :—To wheat, 1,595,864 stremmas ; to barley, 679,109 stremmas ; to maize, 618,159 stremmas ; to rye, 577,496 stremmas ; to legumes, 101,803 stremmas ; and the remaining 140,000 stremmas to buck-wheat, oats, millet, rice, and potatoes. The annual yield is estimated at 3,828,805 hectolitres, or 1,316,000 quarters, which may be valued at about 60,000,000 drachmas. Very little of this produce is exported, whilst the importation of corn is at the rate of more than 20,000,000 drachmas in the year.

The principal industrial cultures include those of flax, hemp, aniseed (producing more than half a million okas³), almonds, olives, and other oil-producing plants. The olive plantations cover 1,679,000 stremmas. The exported oil reached in 1875 a weight of 12,244,000 okas, valued at 12,932,900 drachmas—little more than half the total produce. The cultivation of cotton in Greece is a new branch of industry. In 1875 it occupied an area of 109,858 stremmas ; and the production was 5,452,000 okas, valued at 3,275,000 drachmas.

³ The oka = 2·7 lbs.

There is no doubt that this industry might, in the marshy districts of continental Greece, be developed to such an extent as to aid in supplying the markets of England and other cotton manufacturing countries. Tobacco grows freely in Greece. The produce in 1875 was 2,130,200 okas, valued at 2,556,250 drachmas. About two-fifths of this was exported. Madder (a declining culture) was produced, in 1875, to the value of 800,000 drachmas, from an area of 4750 stremmas. The mulberry plantations cover 54,000 stremmas; the exportation of silk in 1875 amounting to a value of 1,000,000 drachmas.

The fruit culture, in addition to the olives, almonds, and mulberries, includes figs, oranges, lemons, citrons, bergamots, and the vine-fruits. In 1875 the cultivation of figs extended over 63,477 stremmas, producing 218,780 quintals, valued at 3,000,000 drachmas. The Hesperidean fruits abound in the south of Greece and on the islands and coasts. Paros, Andros and Naxos, Messenia, Arkadia, and Argolis are the most productive localities.

The vine fruits occupy an area of 1,237,400 stremmas, whereof about 871,000 stremmas are devoted to the cultivation of the grape. The best localities are the north of the Peloponnesos and the

Kyklades, especially Santorini. The exportation of Greek wines exceeds in quantity 4,500,000 okas, and in value 1,200,000 drachmas. The production of currants in 1875 was valued at 37,000,000 drachmas. As nearly all are exported, the annual trade in this fruit alone brings into the country at the present time a sum approaching to 1,500,000^{l.}

The forests of Greece, covering 6,000,000 stremmas, produce little more than 4,000,000 drachmas annually, whereof more than a third is derived from valonea (on an area of about 13,000 stremmas).

Further details as to the produce and resources of the forests, and as to the domestic animals of Greece, will be found in the chapter dealing with the physical geography of the country. The value of the exported wool is about 500,000 drachmas. The value of the honey and wax, from 167,000 hives, is about 1,250,000 drachmas.

More than one-third of the inhabitants of Greece live by agriculture alone. The actual farmers of land are reckoned (according to the census of 1870) at 218,027, of stock-breeders at 44,532, and of proprietors whose land is tilled by stewards or *métayers* at 31,234; the rest being labourers, shepherds, goatherds, &c. The 218,027 agricultur-

turists mentioned above are for the most part owners of small plots of land, from an acre upwards. On the plains the size of these peasant properties increases ; but there are very few proprietors in Greece who own as much as 250 acres. The estates cultivated by *métayers*, or tenant-farmers, are let, in the first case, on the principle that the actual cultivator shall receive a fixed proportion of the produce ; and, in the latter case, on a yearly agreement, at a rent proportionate to the produce of the farm for the year.

The price of arable land in Greece varies from forty to a hundred drachmas per stremma—6*l.* to 15*l.* per acre. The average production per stremma of corn land varies according to the goodness of the soil, from two to seven kilés per stremma—the highest of these figures representing about 1732 lbs. of corn (about twenty-nine bushels) to the acre. The wages of an agricultural labourer average something under seventeen drachmas, or about 13*s.*, for a week of six days.

The total exportation of agricultural produce from Greece may be valued at 55,566,000 drachmas annually, and the total importation of agricultural produce at 37,868,000 drachmas.



CHAPTER X.

TRADE AND FINANCE.

UP to the establishment of the kingdom there was very little systematic industry amongst the Greeks, beyond that required for the raising of the crops, and for the commerce of a few small ports. The development of national industries was not rapid, even after the independence of the country had been secured ; but a very considerable advance has been made within the past twenty years. In what has already been said of the natural resources of Greece, the steady growth of her export trades has been sufficiently illustrated ; but a few facts may here be added concerning the character and volume of Greek commerce.

The French Commercial Code was introduced in the year 1835, and has been interpreted in accordance with the elementary principles of free trade. The laws give all possible encouragement

to commerce ; there are scarcely any restrictive imposts ; and only on internal commerce is there a tariff, at a maximum of two per cent., received by the communal authorities on goods for consumption within the communes. No doubt the direct and indirect taxation of the country is heavy ; but the burden is made to press lightly on the actual operations of productive industry.

The amount of the inter-communal octrois, which was 843,699 drs. in 1859, had increased to 2,340,973 drs. in 1876. The aggregate trade represented by the latter sum is upwards of 117,000,000 drs., which of course does not express the whole annual value of the internal traffic of Greece.

The general external commerce made its greatest strides in advance between the adoption of constitutional government in 1863 and the epoch of highest prosperity some ten years later. In 1865 the value of the exports was 51,671,719 drs. ; in 1874 it had risen to 75,485,907 drs. During the same period the value of the imports had risen from 90,251,389 drs. to 120,367,159 drs. The rate of increase is further illustrated in the following figures :—

EXPORTS.

	1865. Drachmas.	1874.. Drachmas.
Currants . . . to the value of	17,987,000	37,225,000
Skins, raw . . . ,	266,000	1,128,000
Skins, tanned . . . ,	4,908,000	5,216,000
Lead ,	—	3,427,000
Oil ,	6,365,000	12,888,000
Figs ,	1,574,000	2,578,000
Valonea ,	1,636,000	2,151,000
Wine, syrups, &c. . . . ,	766,000	1,791,000
Silk ,	173,000	1,069,000

Similar statistics for some of the principal imported articles of commerce are as follows :—

IMPORTS.

	1865. Drachmas.	1874. Drachmas.
Cereals . . . to the value of	16,100,000	24,029,000
Stuffs ,	17,347,000	20,530,000
Skins, raw ,	4,540,000	7,396,000
Skins, tanned ,	1,207,000	910,000
Timber ,	3,358,000	5,257,000
Coal ,	22,000	3,070,000
Iron ,	1,501,000	2,283,000
Cotton ,	7,000	185,000

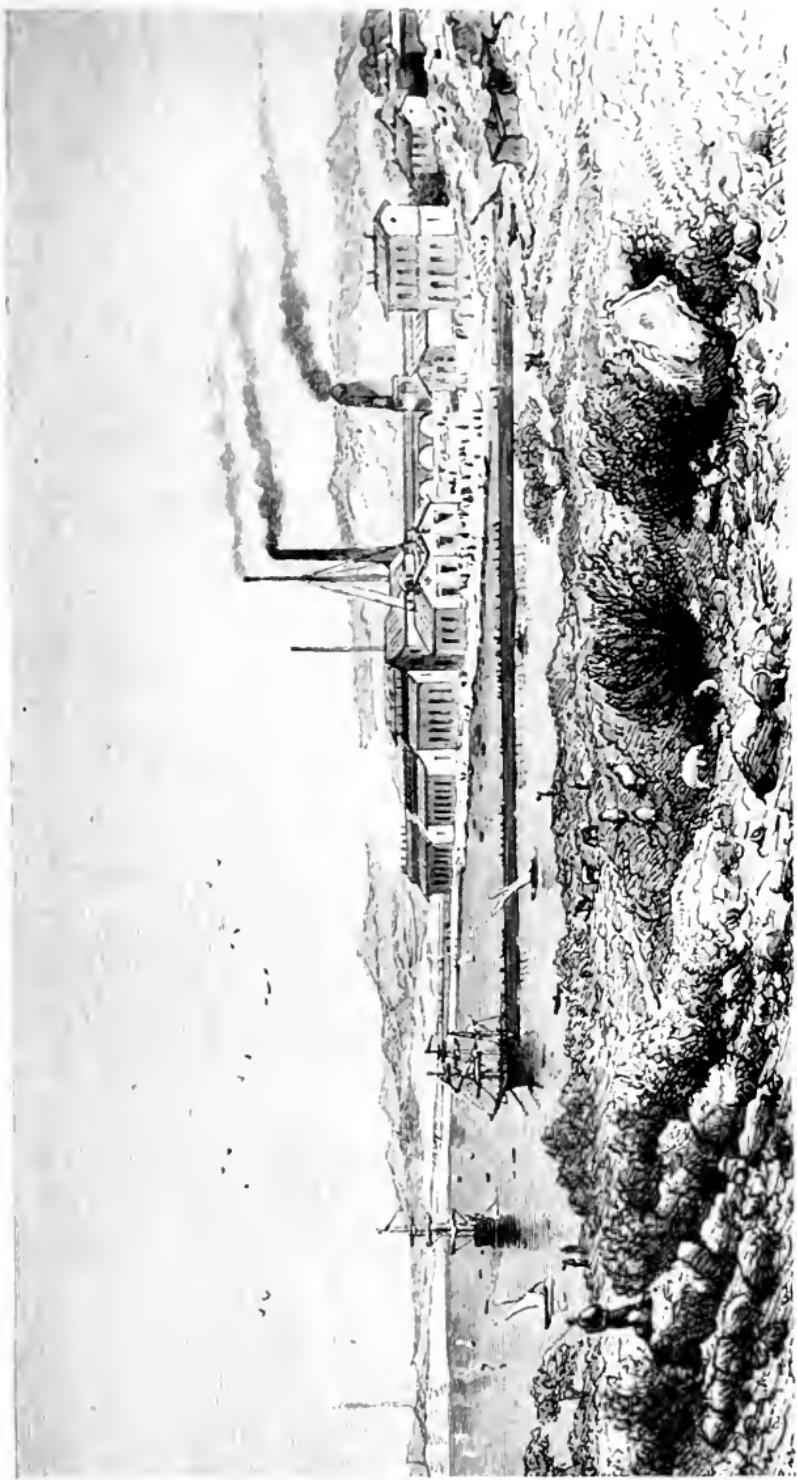
The import, export, and carrying trade of Greece employed, in 1820, about 450 vessels, of 52,000 tons. The number of vessels in 1874 had risen to 5202, and the aggregate tonnage to 250,077. The crews of these vessels in the latter year numbered 25,838 men.

There are about fifty large trading companies in Greece, namely :—ten insurance companies, with an aggregate capital of 25,500,000 drs.; eighteen mining companies, with a capital of 30,876,000 drs.; five banks, with a capital of 66,944,000 drs.; a naval or marine bank; and some twenty various commercial companies, with a capital of 10,866,000 drs.

Steam engines are used by 108 firms or individual traders, with an aggregate horse-power of 2884. Nearly one third of these are at the Peiraios; whilst four of the largest, with 700 horse-power, are at the Lavrion foundries. Judged by this standard alone, the most important manufacturing towns of Greece are the Peiraios, Athens, Syra, Patrai, Corfu, Parnassis, Zante, Lavrion, Kalamata, Ithaka, Megara, Sparta, Nauplia, and Andros, in this order. It is frequently the case that one steam-engine supplies power to several distinct trades.

The total number of artisans, as returned in the census of 1870, was 28,400, of both sexes and all ages. In the steam factories there were 4959 men, 1230 women, 629 boys, and 524 girls; namely, 1904 men in four metal foundries, 1085 of all kinds in eighteen cotton factories, 869 in twelve silk factories, 815 in thirty-two flour-mills, &c., &c.

A FACTORY AT LAVRION.





The trade legislation of Greece is liberal and enlightened ; it not only insures freedom of trade, but protects inventions and trade marks, guarantees new industries, and grants limited privileges of various kinds for the encouragement of the arts and sciences. A Commission for the Encouragement of National Industry exists as a branch of the Ministry of the Interior, and one of the special charges of this Commission is to conduct the Olympiads, or national exhibitions of trade and agriculture, founded by the munificence of Evangelis Zappa, and appointed to be held in every fourth year.

There are ten Chambers of Commerce, sitting at the principal industrial centres of the kingdom, whose business it is to deliberate, and to keep the Government informed on commercial matters. The Chambers in question are held at Athens, Nauplia, Patrai, Syra, Kalamata, Lamia, Chalkis, Corfu, Zante, and Kephallenia.

In addition to the loans of 1824 and 1825, and the "Allied Loans" of 1832, Greece has borrowed sundry other amounts at various times. Between 1862 and 1876 about 86,000,000 drachmas were subscribed, to a very large extent by Greek subjects, or by Greeks resident in foreign countries. There is no desire on the part of Greeks to conceal

the fact that the majority of this money has been raised for patriotic purposes, to promote the general cause of Hellenic emancipation ; and thus the Government scrip has been eagerly taken up within the country, in amounts ranging from a few drachmas upwards. In 1877 a new loan of 60,000,000 francs was authorized by the Chamber, and was issued in Paris during the following year. Of this, more than half was speedily subscribed, and the proceeds were devoted partly to increasing the strength of the national armaments and partly to meeting obligations under former loans.

The actual liabilities of Greece do not, at the present time, amount to the aggregate of the sums here mentioned. Not only have some bonds been redeemed by conversion or repayment, but a sinking fund is attached to each loan, the capital of the debt being reduced by periodical drawings. The deferred debt of 1824-5 is no longer an exception to this rule of gradual repayment ; though the Greeks had long postponed its settlement, on the ground of certain well understood contentions with regard to the manner in which it was incurred. In the year 1879, however, the Greek Government renewed an offer which it had on several previous occasions made to the holders of the scrip (the majority of whom were English) ;

and eventually, thanks to the indefatigable exertions of the Greek *Charge^e d'Affaires* in England, M. J. Gennadius, the deferred debt, with the interest accruing upon it, was converted into a new series of bonds, adequately guaranteed.

The revenue is derived from direct and indirect taxation, public services, national property and royalties, Treasury and other receipts. Of the whole amount, which now approaches 1,500,000/. sterling, about one-third is derived from customs, one-fifth from a direct land and property-tax, one-ninth from stamps, one-seventh from the sale and lease of national property, royalties on mines, quarries, thermal springs, fisheries, forests, the working of salt areas, &c. The least satisfactory items of Greek taxation are the imposts on cattle, pastures, and bees ; but the aggregate of these amounts to less than 50,000/.

The principal items of the annual national expenditure are these :—about 1,250,000 drachmas for the interest of the external loans, 7,250,000 drs. for that of the internal loans (these sums not including interest on the debt contracted in 1879, for the converted patriotic loans or otherwise), about 3,750,000 drs. for the pension list, consisting chiefly of rewards and indemnifications connected with the establishment of Independence ; 1,125,000 drs. for

the civil list ; 450,000 drs. for the salaries of the Deputies ; nearly 8,000,000 drs. for the Ministry of War ; under 5,000,000 drs. for the Ministry of the Interior, and little over 1,000,000 drs. for that of Foreign Affairs. The aggregate expenditure in 1876 was 38,063,841 drs. ; in 1877 it was 41,067,823 drs. ; and it has naturally increased during the past year or two. Thus the budget for 1880, as introduced in the Chamber of Deputies on the last day of 1879, estimated the expenditure at 56,086,400 drs. and the revenue (independently of the proposed new taxation) at only 45,816,547 drs. The conditions under which Greek financiers might be expected to avoid the constantly-recurring deficits are not yet established. Greek finance depends upon Greek politics ; and these, in their turn, depend upon the good pleasure of Europe.



CHAPTER XI.

EDUCATION AND LITERATURE.

EDUCATION has been a passion with the Greeks ; they have regarded it as a sacred duty, and have made great sacrifices for it. The revival of the national spirit during and after the French Revolution displayed itself first of all in the increased intellectual activity of the race ; and their independence was the result and reward of this. The war destroyed many schools and several valuable libraries in the Peloponnesos and in Hellas ; and it was one of the chief cares of the emancipated Greeks, even before Capodistria assumed the reins of Government, to restore what had been lost. In the year 1833 the Bavarians found seventy-one communal schools in working order, as well as thirty-nine higher or “ Hellenic ” schools ; and they immediately gave effect to the national bent by establishing colleges, gymnasia, and (in 1837) the University of Athens.

The Greeks date their Elementary Education Act from 1834, when it was charged upon every commune in the country to support a free primary school. All children between the ages of five and twelve are required to attend these schools, under a penalty of ten lepta (the tenth of a drachma) on the parent of each child for each day's absence. It would seem that the rarity of transgression has in this instance led to the practical abrogation of the law, for the penalty is seldom put in force. It is worth while to observe that the cost of elementary education falls, as in England, mainly upon the rates, supplemented by a small grant, whilst both rate and grant are reduced by the application of ecclesiastical and benevolent endowments to the general service. The subjects taught in the primary schools are as follows:—(1) Sacred history and catechism; (2) Reading and writing in modern Greek; (3) Arithmetic, with the common weights, measures, and money scales; (4) Practical illustration of geometrical figures; (5) Elementary geography, and especially the geography of Greece and the Hellenic countries. (The text-books generally include, under the title of the Hellenic Chersonesos, the geography of Roumania, Bosnia, Servia, and the whole country south of these; also Krete, the eastern archipelago, and Cyprus.) (6)

Elementary history, and especially the history of Greece; (7) Elementary geology, mineralogy, and botany; (8) Anthropology; (9) Elementary physics, with some practical instruction in agriculture and horticulture; (10) Linear drawing; (11) Vocal music; (12) Gymnastics.

At the end of 1877 there were in the primary schools 63,156 boys and 11,045 girls, the number of schools being respectively 1041 and 138, and of teachers, 1041 and 165—an average of about 62 pupils to each teacher. The annual cost of primary instruction is 1,612,000 drachmas, of which the communes bear 1,422,000—nearly one-sixth of the aggregate revenues of the communes of Greece. Many communes support more than one public primary school; whilst throughout the country there are private and adventure schools, corresponding in some sort to our own “voluntary” schools.

In the next grade come the Hellenic schools, (136, with 7646 pupils), and the Gymnasia (18, with 2460 pupils). These add the optional teaching of Latin, and carry forward the subjects of the primary schools. In the Gymnasia, French is taught in all classes, together with mathematics, chemistry, and philosophy. English and German are optional. The Hellenic schools cost the State 1,060,000 drs. (about 37.500*l.*), and the Gymnasia 470,000 drs.

The highest grade of education is supplied by the University of Athens—a university which seems to have sprung like the patroness of the ancient city, mature from the brain of modern Greece. The site and the edifice, the conception and the endowment, the scheme and the results of this noble institution, combine to raise it to a high level amongst the universities of Europe. Its work is carried on in the lecture-rooms of forty-eight professors, a library of 120,000 volumes, an observatory, a botanic garden, four hospitals, and several museums and laboratories. In the first forty-one years of its existence the University has granted 3400 degrees, the great majority in the faculties of law and medicine. Of these degrees about 700, or between one-fourth and one-fifth, have been conferred on Greeks coming from beyond the limits of the kingdom. The total number of the students during the same period has been upwards of 8600; 5700 from Greece, and 2900 from “Doulè Hellas”—chiefly from Epeiros, Thessaly, Makedonia, Thrace, Krete, and the isles of Asia Minor. The endowments of the University amount to 3,500,000 drs. Here also the education is free; the State contributing an annual sum of 380,000 drs.

The aggregate cost of the national education of

Greece is thus about 3,200,000 drachmas, or something over 110,000/. Subtracting the contributions of the University endowments, a share of the national "ecclesiastical revenues," and the charitable funds administered by the communal authorities, the annual cost of education may be said to fall upon the population of the kingdom at the rate of about one shilling a head.

The remaining educational institutions of Greece include the Rhizarion, a religious seminary at Athens, founded by the brothers Rhizari, and three other seminaries at Chalkis, Tripolis, and Hermoupolis; the Polytechnic, or technical school at Athens; the School of Agriculture at Tiryns, having a farm of 13,000 stremmas (now in course of being replaced by a number of model farms in the principal agricultural districts); the naval schools of Nauplia, Hermoupolis, Hydra, Spetzai, Galaxeidion, and Argostolion; the military school at the Peiraios; the girls' schools of the Hetairia Philekpaideutika; the classes and libraries for work-people, maintained by the hetairia of "Friends of the People;" an orphan school at the Peiraios; literary schools established by a syllogue founded for that purpose in 1869; and a number of schools, chiefly for poor children, supported by the Parnassos and other benevolent syllogues.

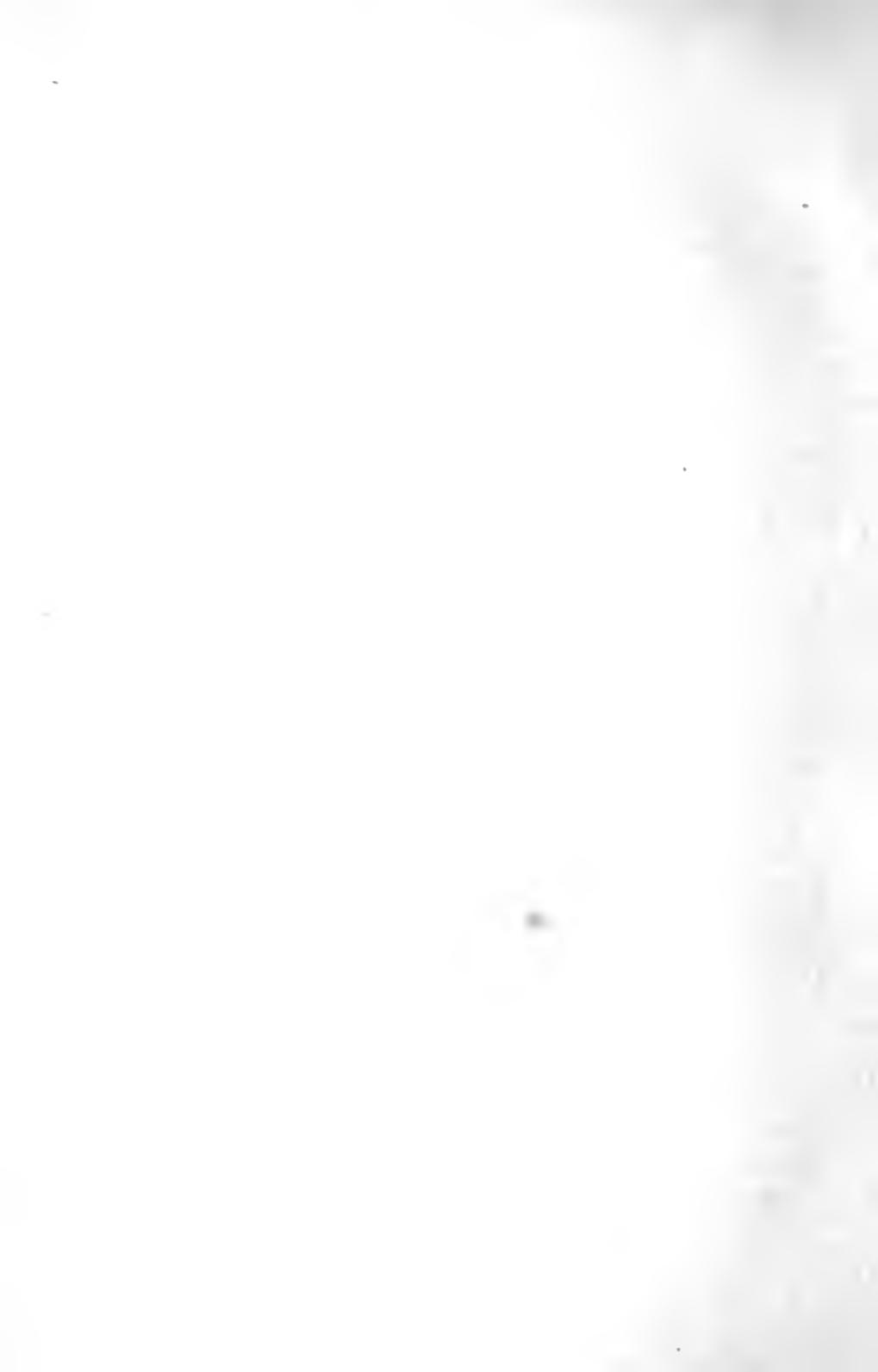
There are, in all, twenty-four syllogues, hetairias, and benevolent institutions, having for their object the cultivation of science and art, education, or mutual aid. The Parnassos syllogue publishes a series of etymological and popular collections, under the title of "Neohellenika Analikta," and has recently added to this labour the issue of a monthly review called "Parnassos," which contains, in addition to original papers and reviews, the transactions of the syllogue, and contributions to archæology and philology. The "Byron" syllogue devotes itself to philology and history, and has issued a monthly review during the past eight or nine years. A musical and dramatic syllogue conducts a "conservatoire" in Athens for the cultivation of music and dramatic elocution, and has a trained choir of fifty. Other syllogues patronize instrumental and ecclesiastical music.

The principal libraries in Greece are those of the University and of the Chamber of Deputies ; one at the Rhizarion school ; one of 35,000 volumes at the Corfu University, and others at Andritsaina, Demetsana, Hermoupolis, and elsewhere.

It is natural that we should find in Greece archæological museums of great interest and value. At Athens there is a central museum in a noble

A HEAD; FROM RUINS IN AIGINA.





pile of buildings, erected by public subscription ; another in the Akropolis ; the museum of the Archæological Society in the Varvakion Institution ; one at the Ministry of Public Instruction ; and one at the Polytechnic School, which holds the relics lately discovered at Mykenai. There are other museums at Thebes, at the Peiraios, at Mykonos, Sparta, and Olympia. The contents of these museums are classified under five periods : (1) the remains of the epoch ending with the seventy-ninth Olympiad ; (2) those of the epoch of Phidias—consisting of vases, medals and inscriptions, with a few sculptures ; (3) those of the Makedonian epoch, in which the sculptures become more numerous ; (4) those of the Roman epoch, which exist in great abundance ; and (5) those of the Byzantine epoch. The museum of numismatics, in the University Library, contains about 43,000 coins, many of which are classified and catalogued. The museums of natural history, botany, anatomy, pathology, and chemistry, are connected with the University.

The literature of modern Greece has hitherto consisted chiefly of translations, modern versions of ancient Greek works, educational compilations, a few histories, archæological treatises, and volumes of poetry. The revival of Greek letters has taken,

in the first instance, an educational or didactic form ; but there is already ample evidence that it will emerge into the phase of imagination and creation. Amongst the leading authors of the past and present generations have been Georgios Gennadios (to whom the Greeks owe the organization of their educational system after the War of Independence, and the establishment of the public Library at Athens), Œconomos, Minoïdes Minas, Schinas, Simos, Sathas ; the historians Trikoupi and Paparrigopoulos ; the poets Zalakosta, Soutzos, Salomos, Rhangabé, Paraschos ; the dramatists Rhizos Neroulos, Soutzos, Skylizzi, Vlachos, Bernardakis ; Professors Koumanoudes, Afentoules, Anagnostakis, and others of greater or less note.

The rehabilitation of the Greek drama proceeds surely, however slowly. The national taste for the stage undoubtedly survives, and is illustrated by many casual representations throughout the country, by the dramatic writers, by the dramatic syllogues and Conservatorium at Athens, by several companies, fixed or peripatetic, and by the Greek theatres of Athens and Constantinople. It is estimated that at least a hundred original Greek plays, and half as many adaptations, have been placed on the stage during the present generation.

In the ten years from 1868 to 1877, there were published 1479 books in Greece, whereof 408 belonged to general literature, 158 to history, 155 to education, 145 to periodical literature, 116 to law and political economy, 77 to theology, 57 to linguistics, 18 to the fine arts, and so forth. About 60 journals and 15 reviews are now issued in Greece, more than half the former, and all but two of the latter, being published in Athens. Of the newspapers, seven are daily publications. In addition to these, many journals and books in the modern Greek language are published in various cities of Europe, Asia, and even Africa.

On the whole, the intellectual condition of the country is not unsatisfactory when we bear in mind through what an ordeal it has had to pass. It might be adventurous to predict for Greece a renewal of her ancient literary glories ; but there is little reason to doubt that she will one day prove herself to be worthy of her illustrious ancestry.



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